DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 218 991 HE 015 160

AUTHOR	Jones, Larry G., Ed.
TITLE	Problems and Perspectives for Institutional Research in the 1980's. Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Southern Association for Institutional Research (Louisville, Kentucky, October 29-31, 1980).
INSTITUTION	Southern Association for Institutional Research.
PUB DATE	81
NOTE	114p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Southern Association for Institutional Research, ADM 214, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620.
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Academic Persistence; College Faculty; College Planning; College Students; *Computer Oriented Programs; *Data Collection; *Educational Assessment; Faculty Development; Higher Education; *Institutional Research; Management Information Systems; Microcomputers; Minority Groups; Program Evaluation; Researchers; *Student Attrition; Student Evaluation
IDENTIFIERS	Program Discontinuance

ABSTRACT

Proceedings of the 1980 conference of the Southern Association for Institutional Research (SAIR) are presented. The conference focused on problems and perspectives for institutional research in the 1980s. Contents include: reports of preconference workshops and sessions, reports of conference sessions, abstracts of contributed papers, and administrative studies, and reports pertaining to the affairs of the SAIR. Documents and authors are as follows: "Developing an Institutional Fact Book" (Glynton Smith, Charles Bryson, Larry G. Jones); "Providing for Minority Needs in Predominantly White Colleges and Universities" (Leroy Ervin); "Program Evaluation in Higher Education" (Larry A. Braskamp); "Perils and Pitfalls of Program Discontinuance: An Approach-Avoidance Conflict" (Edwin A. Rugg); "Faculty Development: A Role for Institutional Research" (Stephen H. Wurster); "The Use of Holistic Grading in Assessing Writing Competency" (Maryann S. Ruddock); "Methodologies for Projecting Enrollment and Quarter Credit Hours on a Systemwide Basis," (Carol M. Miller); "Attrition and Retention" (Daniel E. Brasher, John A. Jones, Douglas I. Blom); "A Computerized Data Base for Studying the Impact of Student Retention Over a Five-Year Period" (Michael McCord, Robert McNabb); "The Microcomputer: A New Resource for the Institutional Researcher" (R. Gregory Litaker); "A Model for Reallocation of Departmental Faculty" (Gerald W. McLaughlin, James R. Montgomery); "Utilization of the 1980 Census Data for Institutional Research and Planning: A Preliminary Report" (Jane Preston); and "The Role of Institutional Research in Higher Education Desegregation Issues" (John Matlock, Gayla Thomas). (SW)

ED218991

Problems and Perspectives for Institutional Research in the 1980's

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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PROBLEMS AND PERSPECTIVES FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH IN THE 1980'S

Larry G. Jones
Editor

Southern Association for Institutional Research

1980 Conference Proceedings
Louisville, Kentucky
October 29-31, 1980

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PREFACE

Although the published conference proceedings will never capture the real excitement of the presentations or the ensuing exchange of ideas, facts, rumors, and humor that formally and informally comprise the program of the annual Southern Association for Institutional Research conferences, they do serve several useful purposes. First, of course, they permanently record the material presented as a contribution to the accumulated knowledge of the profession. The non-attender is thereby afforded the opportunity to share in the conference and ideas by reading the papers and presentations. For the conference participant, the published proceedings provide an opportunity to study ideas and issues that probably passed by too quickly for considered thought during the crowded meeting schedule. They can stimulate reflection, deliberation and assimilation of the material presented.

The published proceedings can also encourage participation in future SAIR conferences. The quality of the conference program and presentations is well documented through the proceedings, and all researchers and practitioners are invited to contribute to this significant opportunity for professional development by their attendance and program participation. Unfortunately, the published proceedings simply cannot record the quality of the personal and professional friendships and associations that distinguish the Southern Association for Institutional Research. Perhaps, however, the proceedings can serve as a reminder of, or an invitation to, that fellowship.

The 1980 SAIR conference theme, "Problems and Perspectives for Institutional Research in the 1980's," was developed from Marvin Peterson's 1979 SAIR conference keynote address, "Proliferation, Fragmentation and Politicalization: Institutional Research, In Transition or In Disintegration?" In his paper, Peterson mentioned institutional planning, program evaluation, program reduction/closure, concern for quality, faculty and staff vitality, and minority issues as the key problems facing higher education and, in turn, institutional research. The conference and proceedings presented reasoned approaches for institutional researchers to those institutional problems. Each of the program participants is to be commended for his/her thoughtful and insightful presentations. The shared research papers, noted in the proceedings by abstracts, were again a significant aspect of the conference and are available in complete form from the authors. Both the success of the conference and now the quality of the proceedings are testimony to the contributions of the program participants.

Special appreciation and recognition must be given Greg Litaker, who directed the local arrangements for the 1980 SAIR Conference and made the stay in Louisville so memorable; to Nancy Holmes, who so ably assisted in the editing of the proceedings; and to Alison Hill, who typed the final manuscript.

Larry G. Jones
University of Georgia
1980 SAIR Program Chair and Proceedings Editor

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TO THE INDIVIDUAL INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCHER

Suzanne W. Larsen President, Southern Association for Institutional Research

The themes of recent institutional research meetings reflect the concern of those associated with the area as to its future direction. From the simplistic "The Future of Institutional Research" to the futuristic "Toward 2001: An Institutional Research Perspective" each theme carries an implicit element of change in the involvement of institutional research within an organization.

Simultaneously, there is apparently a role conflict within the group of individuals practicing "institutional research." More of these individuals identified themselves with the profession of higher education or as "institution members" than they did as institutional research professionals (Storrar, 1981).

The charge of the Southern Association for Institutional Research is to bring to its members what the members feel they want and need. I encourage each of you to reassess your personal and institutional goals and let your wants and needs be made known to the executive committee of SAIR, your elected representatives. They can then organize a conference to provide the kind of information that will help you perform your job and challenge you to be creative within your institution.

References

Storrar, S. "Perceptions of Organizational and Political Environments: Results of a National Survey of Institutional Research/Planning Officers at Large Public Universities." Paper presented at AIR Forum. Minneapolis, MN, 1981.

PRE-CONFERENCE WORKSHOP: DEVELOPING AN INSTITUTIONAL FACT BOOK

Glynton Smith — Georgia State University
Charles Bryson — Georgia State University
Larry G. Jones — University of Georgia

A workshop emphasizing the practical approach in developing and issuing an institutional fact book. Three distinct processes were covered: development, timing, and integration of information for a fact book. Exercises designed to aid those who wish to produce a fact book or enhance an existing fact book were used to guide the participant in exploring and developing practical approaches suitable to the institutional environment.

PRE-CONFERENCE WORKSHOP: RETENTION AND PERSISTENCE STUDIES

Timothy R. Sanford — University of North Carolina

A workshop focusing attention on the means of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data on retention and persistence, rather than specific ways to keep students in college. The workshop led participants through: 1. a definition of the information needed; 2. the design of systems for collecting the data; 3. methods of data analysis; and 4. techniques for reporting the data in understandable fashion to the decision-makers. Consideration was also given to reviewing studies and procedures appropriate to the participants' institutions.

SYSTEMWIDE DATA FILES: THE PROS AND CONS

Conveners

David G. Clements — University of Georgia
Haskin Pounds — University System of Georgia

David G. Clements

Welcome to an open discussion on systemwide data files. The intent of this session is to exchange information and stimulate discussion. Haskin Pounds and I are here as conveners, rather than as presenters, for the purpose of offering comments on the subject of systemwide data files. Since we have not discussed our remarks, each of us may be surprised at the other's comments. I might also say at the outset that the intent is not for Haskin to argue in favor of systemwide files and for me to argue against them, even though our remarks may suggest pro and con positions. Furthermore, this is certainly not a presidential-style debate, because neither Haskin nor I is seeking or trying to eliminate the other's job. We hope you will become involved in the discussion, ask questions and exchange ideas with us.

As an introduction, I have prepared a few remarks that will provide background regarding facts, philosophies, and opinions. These remarks are in three phases: 1. background about The University of Georgia; 2. background about the University System of Georgia; and 3. the subject of systemwide data files. In the third phase particularly, you will need to decide for yourselves what is fact, what is philosophy, and what is opinion.

The University of Georgia was the first state-supported chartered university in the nation. We are currently planning the celebration of its 200th birthday in 1985. With 13 schools and colleges, approximately 2,000 faculty members, 23,000 students, and 3,000 non-student employees, the University is a major research-oriented institution of higher education within the State of Georgia. As a land-grant institution, the University encompasses some 34,000 acres, including forestry and agricultural areas, as well as 10,000,000 square feet of facilities both on and off campus. Teaching has historically been the primary purpose of the University and continues to be its major responsibility. One special strength is the scope and diversity of degree programs offered: at the undergraduate level, 18 baccalaureate degree programs with major concentrations in 250 different fields within a framework of 115 departments; at the graduate level, 19 Master's degrees and 125 areas of concentration, as well as doctorates in 73 areas. In addition, professional degree programs are available in law, veterinary medicine, pharmacy, social work, and forest resources. The University of Georgia became an early leader in the successful integration of teaching, research, and public service functions.

The University System of Georgia came into being fifty years ago (1931) when the Georgia General Assembly created a Board of Regents with broad jurisdiction to govern, control, and manage all public-supported institutions of higher education within the

state. The Board was also empowered to establish new institutions and to abolish institutions deemed unnecessary. In 1943, this plan was embodied in the state constitution so that the Board of Regents is officially a constitutional board. It consists of fifteen members appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the state Senate to serve staggered eight-year terms. The Chancellor is the chief administrative officer of the University System and has support staff to carry out his functions. Each president of the 33 institutions within the System (4 universities, 13 senior colleges, and 16 junior colleges) reports to the Chancellor.

Having given this background about the University and University System of Georgia, I will now turn to the pros and cons of systemwide data files. All of us at all levels are guilty of requesting, selecting, and desiring more information than we can ever conceivably use. We also have a tendency to ask for all the information related to a given subject, instead of requesting only what we need in a concise and usable form. Without questioning intent or responsibility, in general I feel that systemwide data files tend to be too large and encompassing to provide accurate, timely information. At least three problems come to mind: 1. the feeling that "if I get enough data, I must find the right answer"; 2. the large number of data systems addressing the same subject because of each person's insistence on designing his own information system; 3. the false belief that the new system will reduce the reporting burden for institutions. Every governing agency, regardless of level, does have a need for information as well as a responsibility for collecting and analysing that information. I'm not saying that we should avoid system files; I'm just interjecting a word of caution that we should be aware of their limitations and not get carried away.

Five points should be considered regarding any information system that is created. First, we must do a better job of planning, because good planning consumes less time and yields more results for the same cost as haphazard efforts. Second the designer of information systems should not overlook the user. We must identify the users and be willing to share with one another the names of the primary and secondary users. Third, because the system should be designed to meet human needs, we cannot ignore the person who supplies the information or who receives the results. Fourth, the system should be designed to provide rapid responses that are available when needed. Fifth, it should be small enough to accomplish and large enough to be worthwhile--a principle I try to apply on campus. From a systemwide standpoint, the system should also provide feedback to institutions in accordance with the frequency of data collection, submit scheduling plans for both collection and distribution of the information, and allow institutions to review and correct the data and reports before filing and distribution.

I readily admit--with reservations--that a systemwide file *can* be a method to clarify, simplify, and reduce the reporting burden of institutions. It *can* consolidate reporting. It *can* meet some external reporting requirements, though this is a dangerous assumption to make. If a systemwide file is established, people must be trained carefully to use it. A system should exist to provide needed information for analysis.

Systemwide data problems fall into two categories: those for operational purposes and those for purposes of central analysis. Quite a few of us have had some experience with data systems implemented on a systemwide basis for operational purposes. I think these systems can be very beneficial, but we need to be careful because I'm told that a shareable package (system) costs about ten times as much to develop as a specific, non-shareable one. The shareable package must be flexible and capable of taking into account differences among institutions. From an institutional perspective, we have a responsibility and even an obligation to provide accurate, timely, and worthwhile information to our governing agency. We have a greater responsibility to know more about our institution than the governing body itself does.

I would like to close with several words of caution. Don't create a systemwide data file just because others are doing so. Be sure there is a need for one. Even the best-designed systems take twice as long to use, involve twice as many resources, and produce half as many benefits as anticipated. Try to design systems to meet normal needs. I believe it is much better to design and implement your own system than to have one imposed, although in many cases the only way to accomplish what is necessary is through an imposed system. Don't let the designer of information systems be too restrictive regarding methods for supplying data from institutions. Information systems can easily become monuments to someone or methods for promotion. They can easily be controlled by people who do not understand the system, the data, the need for accuracy, or even the reasons for the system's existence. Consider how long it takes to design and implement a system and the amount of turnover that must take place during that time. We should be willing to stop a system as quickly as we are to start one.

Haskin Pounds

David's description of the environment and his introduction of the topic has left me with very little to say. Perhaps I can stimulate discussion by asking a few questions and telling you how and why I got involved in systemwide information systems. How many of you have to report information to the regents or trustees and quite often have no idea what it's for? David can raise his hand on that question, because I know he can't know the reason for a data request when I myself don't know its purpose. That's one example of the kind of problem we have to face in seeking data for centralized reporting and decision-making.

A couple of years ago when I was asked to take my position in planning at the University System, I discovered a need for what I call "planning information"--nothing highly philosophical or technical; just practical, simple, useful thinking about where a school is, where it's going, and how it can get there. "Planning information," as I view it, is information about your institution and its operation that will help you make the best decisions or the best recommendations to the boss. It allows you to say, "now if we do this, here is what will likely happen." When I looked at the need for this planning

information at the Regent's level, I discovered that we had some data systems that were monuments and had long outlived their usefulness; no one really knew what the systems were for or how they were used. In fact, we had one massive collection of data and a corresponding report that hadn't been released in two years. That's another example of the data problem at the Regent's level. Once we identified some of those data-related problems, it became clear that we had to look at the data requirements of the University System as well as the individual institutions. In this case, the search for answers and solutions has led to Louisville, Kentucky, and we hope through this discussion to get you to shed some light on the issues.

Before we ask for your comments, questions, and suggestions, I'd like to share with you some of my opinions, some general notions about statewide data systems that have come to me from looking at what other states and university systems are doing, and some "Pounds Principles" for developing data systems. One of the first points I'd like to make is that people should not expect an information system to answer their prayers by making decisions for them. Information data--converted information--will not make the decision for the boss. He still has to make it. Quite often, as David mentioned, people get the impression that if they just had the correct information the decision would make itself. Usually the folks who get in that quandary are a bit reluctant to make the tough decisions anyway.

One of the things that came out of our study of other states is that central data files ought to be developed in order to ease the very reporting burden that David said they wouldn't ease. I think he was trying to throw cold water on my pet project, or my "monument," as he calls it. If you're in a state like ours, or if you're in a state where you have to report data to a central organization, then it makes sense to see whether you can make that central system work for you. Now if you're in a state where you're not required to do that, I don't think the same operations will apply. In the University System of Georgia we require an institution to submit a massive amount of data: for example, 23 separate reports on students per quarter, 13 separate reports on faculty per quarter, one report on curriculum, 3 reports on facilities, and 8 reports on financial data. We had two reports on libraries, but when we discovered those reports were identical, we eliminated one of them. One wonders why it hadn't been discovered earlier. In view of all these reports, we thought there might be a way to make the central file work for the benefit of the institutions.

Now I agree with David that we can't eliminate all 23 of these student reports, because some of them contain unique bits of data that can only be acquired through a separate report. But perhaps we can eliminate some of them. If we feed the information into a central file, perhaps modern technology can make that file print out just the report required for a given purpose. We can then send a copy to the institution in proof of compliance and a copy to the federal government to meet its requirements, and perhaps we will not have to worry about it again. We've done that in some cases; so I

know it will work. Of course I don't know whether it will work in all cases. The first of my "Pounds Principles" in developing data systems may be the most important: if you want to make a change in information collection or utilization, pilot-test it first to see whether it will actually reduce the burden. You want to know how much it will cost and whether it will improve on what is currently being done.

The goal is not merely to collect data, but to utilize the data in planning and decision-making. Quite often we think the goal is to fill out the form and, once that has been done, the mission has been accomplished. I think the mistake that we make in our offices, and that many presidents and chief academic officers make, is not informing the people who supply the information how it will ultimately be used. What are the implications of the request and what's the rationale behind it? Remember, the goal is not to collect but rather to utilize the data.

My office is across the street from the Georgia State Capitol and, while the legislature is in session, we get numerous requests from people. They don't know enough to explain what they want. It's difficult politically to deal with that. Sometimes, when you ask them diplomatically for an explanation of their purpose, they feel you're being secretive and don't want to give them the data. And on more than one occasion, some intern (a junior or senior in college) has got me in trouble by telling some senator or representative that I didn't want to give him the data just because I asked him to clarify his request. That leads me to a second principle: there are really no secrets. Only a very small amount of data is really confidential. If everybody in the system or on campus can operate with the same information, then we have a much better climate for administration, teaching, research, and service. Even though there are no secrets, steps should be taken to protect the confidentiality of the data. Those steps should be clearly stated and advertised. You need to overcome the feeling of people on campuses and throughout the state that you're going to violate someone's confidentiality.

As I said, we discovered data that were not analyzed because the purpose for their collection was unknown or because they were so poorly conceived as to defy analysis. We discovered we were collecting some information long after it was needed; much was being collected but not used. For example, we had a massive report that identified the year of high school graduation for each beginning freshman; it was a hand-reported job. No one knows why that information was ever collected or whether it was ever utilized. A third principle in developing data files may be the old adage, "use it or lose it."

A fourth principle of data system development has already been mentioned by David. Institutions have a right to timely feedback. If you have a central file on your campus or in a state and you collect data from a college of arts and sciences, for example, then that college has a right to expect feedback on the data. The administrators just might use the information in their decision-making; more important, they can judge its

accuracy and tell you if something's wrong with it.

I'll close with this final principle that is not original with me: information will not make you well, but the absence of information can make you sick.

Questions and Comments

Question: *You say you try to get the legislators and all those folks to tell you the goal of the information. What if that goal is threatening? Suppose they want to reduce the number of programs at The University of Georgia. How do you then tell The University of Georgia that your office has to supply this information because they're going to cut programs?*

Pounds: Well, if you keep my other principles in mind, the University will find out anyway because there are no secrets. It's easiest just to deal with it, to give the information to the legislators. You can sometimes convince them either that they're wrong or that they'll lose. You won't win all the time, but you'll accomplish more that way than by trying to keep it secret.

Question: *How do you determine who has a right to information?*

Pounds: I think a governing board of an institution has a right to know. I think a president of an institution has a right to examine information on any student or any employee. I think a governing board also has that right. Now, what about people in other situations? You eventually come to a point where someone does not have the right to information without permission--written permission- of the student or employee. We work around it by developing a means of protecting confidentiality of information. We have a 23-year history of collecting grades and test scores on students, yet I'm not aware of any instance in which confidentiality has been compromised by identifying the data on an individual student to anybody in any way. Many people don't realize that we have been collecting this confidential data for some twenty years.

Question: *Isn't there a danger in some of these data collection systems that the information is too homogenized? Just getting the data into a form suitable for all institutions tends to reduce it to the lowest common denominator. Don't you miss some of the legitimate distinctions between institutions because of that?*

Pounds: Yes, we do have that problem, but I still think we should do what we can. A student is a student. A freshman student at one of our junior colleges is in about the same position as a freshman student at The University of Georgia or Georgia Tech. Additional elements can be picked up in some of the external reports I said we would be unable to eliminate.

Question: *When you get reports back from the Regents, how much time do you spend confirming that they are indeed correct? Do you spend as much time as you would in generating the report?*

Clements: You could. I've tried to adopt the philosophy that the data supplied to the Regents comes as a by-product of our own information systems. We try to provide the data to them in a machine-readable form that we have already edited from files we have maintained, verified, and used. We do check the summaries of their reports with our own data.

Pounds: It would be hard for David to check all of the reports, because some are not sent back for two years. I'm proposing that the data feedback to the institution be consistent with the period of collection. If you collect a report quarterly, we should be obligated to report to that department or institution quarterly also.

Clements: There may be no good place to end a discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of systemwide data files, but our time has run out and we have to end. Haskin and I appreciate your sharing with us your concerns and ideas. We can promise you that, while we may not have solved the problems, we are all wiser for the exchange of ideas.

DEALING WITH THE MINORITY ISSUES AT BLACK COLLEGES

Charles I. Brown Fayetteville State University

The 1960's may well be remembered as the euphoric decade, as this was the season in which all fair-minded people were made giddy on a fare of idealistic rhetoric and the heightened expectations that legal, economic, and educational equality were just around the corner. But with the inevitability of time came the 1970's and an era of disenchantment as the fair-minded, and all black Americans, were gradually nudged back to the realization that idealistic goals--expressed in slogans about "freedom now," "black power," and "equal educational opportunity"--were concepts more easily talked about than achieved.

Some would say that we were too naive in our 1960's attitudes, that our gullibility set us up as perfect pawns for the disenchantment visited upon us in the 1970's.

Though much can be said both pro and con for the foregoing assertion, a more timely question concerns our position and attitude of today. This question is important because too much passive rumination on the ecstasies and travesties of the past will get us nowhere, and because there is still much to be done in all these realms before the aspirations and dreams of all the disenfranchised and the fair-minded have been realized.

So, with both clock and calendar telling us that the 1970's are behind us and that most of the 1980 decade with its promises and surprises still stretches ahead of us, we wonder what the future holds. One charting of how we should deal with what lies ahead was given by Marvin Peterson (1979) in his now-memorable keynote address entitled "Proliferation, Fragmentation and Politicalization: Institutional Research, In Transition or Disintegration?" He gave a sighting on some new directions institutional research may take during what he chose to call the "transition period" in the still youthful history of institutional research as a profession.

You may recall that Peterson alluded to six institutional problems and implications: 1. Institutional planning; 2. Program evaluation; 3. Reduction/closure; 4. Concern for quality; 5. Faculty and staff vitality; and 6. Minority issues. The program of this conference deals with all six problems, and this session deals specifically with minority issues. Peterson's reference to minority issues in his Orlando speech primarily concerned minorities on the historically or predominantly white college campus. Judging from what Peterson said, there are several justifications for further research in that area. My assignment, however, if I have not been too presumptuous, is to discuss minority issues on the historically or predominantly black college campus.

I wish I could say that not enough time has been allotted for me to discuss in exhaustive detail all that needs to be said about white students on black campuses, but the real truth of the matter is that published research on this subject is only

eight years old. As a consequence, researchers in this area (who by some curious circumstance happen to be mostly North Carolinians) have had only enough time to draw up some fairly definitive profiles concerning the "who, why, how" of the minority or white presence on traditionally black college and university campuses. One example of this type of research is "A Comparison of the Educational Aspirations and the Occupational Plans of Students Entering a Predominantly White College and Students Entering a Predominantly Black College" by Pratt, Fuller, and Gaynor (1979), as reported in the 1979 SAIR Proceedings. Papers of a similar ilk that will be presented at this 1980 SAIR Annual Meeting include "Student Outcomes Assessment: A Biracial Analysis" by Budig, Kyper, Khan, and McSwain; "Higher Education Financing in the Fifty States: Significance for the 'Adams' States" by Jeanne Budig; and "The Role of Institutional Research in Higher Education Desegregation Issues" by Matlock and Thomas.

While I have the opportunity, I should also say that North Carolina is in the forefront of studies on minority issues (over and beyond being sued by the NAACP, etc.) in part because of the Institute on Desegregation at North Carolina Central University. The Institute, founded by Norm Uhl *et al.*, is currently under the directorship of Jeff Smith. Studies by the Institute have been presented as papers and publications all over the academic spectrum. As a matter of fact, I just happen to have two of the Institute's latest publications here with me. *The Institute on Desegregation: A Center for Cooperative Interinstitutional Research,* a brochure by Jeff Smith (1980), gives the history, purpose, and range of Institute activities during 1977-80. The second is a monograph entitled *Desegregation and the White Presence on the Black Campus: A Bibliography for Researchers* by Brown and Speller (1980), which lists research to this date concerning the white minority on traditionally black college and university campuses.

Of the whole minority segment on the black campus, the most studied group has been the student, although even here some changes are in the offing. For example, the Florida Research Center, in a fairly massive undertaking, has polled minority faculty and administrators on both traditionally black and traditionally white campuses for reactions to their minority status. An eight-page questionnaire was distributed in late 1979, and it is quite probable that the findings of this study may be reported later this year. Smaller pilot efforts studying the white minority faculty have been made at Morehouse College by Davis in 1979 and at Fayetteville State University by Brown and Donovan in 1980.

This is nearly all that can be said about the current status of research relating to the white minority on the black campus. As you can see, research in this area is even more on the threshold than research concerning the black minority on the predominantly white campus. For the traditionally black college, however, the problem is not just a matter of facing issues raised by a white minority on campus; it is also the

problem of survival as a minority--a black--institution. What can be said, with or without the research, is that if all the problems facing the traditionally black colleges could be refined into one, the root problem would appear now and in the past to have been a matter of simply not having enough money to make ends meet. All of us are well aware that state, federal, and philanthropic funds given to the traditionally black colleges and universities are consistently below the amounts given to white colleges.

Indeed, not long ago I argued and wrote optimistically that one of the beneficial corollaries of desegregation would be an increase in funding for traditionally black colleges proportionate to the white presence and the dictates of HEW's enhancement policy. But this increase has not happened, as many of us can attest. Jewel Stewart, who perhaps has studied this problem more intently than most of us, points to the case of Missouri's Lincoln University (where the white/black student ratio is now 80/20 or 90/10). The stigma of having been a historically black institution leaves that school still seeking funds equal to those provided other publicly supported colleges and universities in Missouri of the same mission, scope, and comprehensiveness.

Peterson-like, I cite the Lincoln University example with the thought that institutional researchers who have a bent for sociology, political science, and perhaps psychology will try their hand at research to provide answers to the questions raised by such situations. I would also recommend that those interested in minority issues undertake an even more encompassing desegregation/integration study. The need for such a study is demonstrated by the recent Black College Day Rally held in Washington, D.C. Although now is not the time to argue the merits and demerits of the reason for the Black College Day Rally, now *is* the time for cooler heads to prevail before the situation worsens. Let me take this opportunity to suggest a study so basic and well-argued that the concerns and problems can be regarded not as minority issues but rather as plain old "people" issues. To get you "Cool Hand Lukes" started on this research project, let me offer for your consideration the following definitions of desegregation and integration.

Desegregation is a neutralizing process that occurs when laws, edicts, and customs that restrict the fullest participation of groups, races, ages, religions, sexes, or classes in societal activities are rescinded. The segregated society is typified by separate schools for races and peoples; denial of equal access to places of public accommodation; laws preventing free occupational choice, interracial housing or neighborhoods, interracial marriage, and on and on and on *ad infinitum*. Desegregation is at once the removal of these barriers and the essential prerequisite to integration. Desegregation is achieved to the degree that it succeeds in modifying the social institutions, the personal behaviors, and the value system which supported the segregated structure.

Integration, on the other hand, is the situation and the process which exists when men in society are breaking down the barriers of laws, edicts, and customs while moving toward the full acceptance of all people without reference to their racial, religious, or ethnic differences. It is the process of achieving full equality of status and condition. Ideally, the integrative process should work toward a goal or condition in which the need for a conscious or deliberate implementation of the integrative process ceases to exist. In a culturally and morally healthy community integration may be achieved so gradually and so effectively as to attract little or no popular attention or opposition.

Whether the transition from segregation to integration through desegregation is easy or rugged, the change will most assuredly involve some costs both to the social system being left behind and to the social system created.

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PROVIDING FOR MINORITY NEEDS IN PREDOMINANTLY WHITE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Leroy Ervin University of Georgia

In the nine decades that have passed since 1896, when the Supreme Court affirmed the constitutionality of racially separate educational facilities in *Plessy v. Ferguson*, we have seen a dramatic transformation in the law and in its impact on equal educational opportunity. This transformation is best epitomized by two actions: first, the 1954 Supreme Court ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*, wherein the court declared that racially separate educational facilities were inherently unequal and therefore unconstitutional; and second, the affirmative action admission programs which resulted from statutory enforcement of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. These changes--from segregation and inequality to more equal treatment and opportunities--came about, finally, because of perceived social needs. In turn, these needs prompted the enactment of laws which helped to redefine the concept of equal educational opportunity by legislating social behavior. Still, educational opportunity remains an elusive and as yet unattained goal, primarily because the needs which originally gave rise to the law have not been carried out in the spirit of the law. That we are now at a point somewhere between the letter and the spirit of the law reflects in large part the inability of laws to effect attitudinal change; but if we adhere to the letter of the law and hold behavior consistent over time, then attitudes will eventually change.

In order to insure equal educational opportunity, we must therefore go beyond the letter of the law to the spirit of the law. Programs must be developed now to meet those needs which are specified under the letter of the law but which are affected and institutionalized only by applying the spirit of the law. To achieve this goal we first must outline several procedures for identifying the needs of minority students in predominantly white institutions and, second, must propose strategies which provide for those needs.

Webster's Dictionary defines *need* as a "psychological or physiological requirement for the maintenance of the homeostasis of an organism." Maintaining the homeostasis of minority students in predominantly white institutions requires meeting obvious and not-so-obvious needs. Two obvious areas of need are the academic and social environment. What is not always obvious, however, is the exact nature of these academic and social needs. In an attempt to identify a broad range of specific needs, one might first ask a cross-section of minority students to name at least three institutional changes which, if implemented, would provide the kind of comfortable socio-psychological environment that would enable them to be more productive students academically. From the standpoint of time, this approach would be the most economical and direct, regardless of other strategies employed. The list of proposed changes can be categorized under appropriate headings, such as academic, social, cultural, etc.

A second method for identifying academic needs is to examine the historical level of performance of national achievement and merit scholars. If the academic needs of this group are not being met according to examining criteria, then there is good reason to suspect that other minority students are faring even worse. This conclusion is based upon the assumption that national achievement and merit scholars are better equipped academically than the general student population.

One might begin by securing a list of national achievement and merit scholars who matriculated over the past five years and separating the listed students by rank--graduates, seniors, juniors, sophomores, and freshmen. Next, from their transcripts, beginning with the graduates, one can determine whether the number who entered equals the number who graduated. If it does not, identify the reasons. For example, did they transfer? Why? What was the academic performance of the entering group year by year? In the same manner, examine the seniors, juniors, and so on. Are there discernible patterns of performance? Focusing on various types of fluctuation in the academic environment, one can determine whether inordinate numbers of students transfer into or out of a particular curriculum. Are there specific courses with which students seem to have difficulty, as reflected in final grades? Do students perform significantly below expected levels? Do the transcripts indicate that students do not perform well during particular periods of time?

A third procedure for determining academic needs is to obtain current institutional data on minority student probation/dismissals for academic reasons. Most institutions have something comparable to the University of Georgia's Educational Plans and Policies Committee, which stipulates the conditions a student must meet in order to return to the institution after the dismissal period. In reviewing appeals, the committee renders a negative or affirmative decision which is ordinarily final. A great deal of pertinent information can be obtained from this source: 1. the number of minority students dismissed within the past several years; 2. the length of the dismissal period; 3. the conditions the students had to meet in order to return; 4. a comparison between stipulations given to minority and majority students and a determination as to the comparative stringency of the stipulations; 5. the number of students that satisfied the requirements for returning; and 6. the number that asked to return and were denied, as well as the reason for that denial.

Previously conducted surveys provide still another alternative for ascertaining the academic and social needs of minority students. In a recent study (Jones, 1979), the Southern Regional Education Board examined the attitudes of more than 2,500 black students in nineteen predominantly white institutions. Last year, the Counseling and Testing Center at The University of Georgia coordinated a survey of the needs of the campus's majority and minority student population ("A Needs Assessment," 1980). The results of this study, coupled with the findings of the Education Board survey, clearly delineate the perceived academic and social needs of minority students in predominantly white institutions. Based on

these studies, the following discussion focuses on identifying specific academic and social needs and then proposes strategies to address these needs.

The academic needs of minority students at most predominantly white institutions differ markedly from the needs of majority students. For instance, black students consistently express a desire to obtain more help from their academic advisors, especially in establishing their academic program plan and in acquiring more information for selecting a major. In addition, black students desire more opportunities to discuss career planning with counselors. Yet these same students want to be comfortable in expressing their opinions, thoughts, and feelings to counselors, and to do so honestly.

Providing environmental support for the academic needs of minority students is another pressing problem in predominantly white colleges and universities. Most minority students attend these institutions for academic reasons, specifically because they perceive the quality and reputation of the institutions as an advantage for graduates. Once black students have entered a predominantly white institution, however, they receive little or no encouragement to excel academically. Traditional honor societies on white campuses do not encourage minority membership. The few minority students who are allowed membership in these organizations seldom find the support they need, particularly from other individuals with whom they can relate on the basis of similar problems. As one solution, it may be necessary to develop some form of honors program or academic support group whose principal purpose is to promote high standards of achievement for minorities.

Although these particular academic concerns reflect somewhat obvious minority needs, the social needs of minority students are often less obvious and therefore frequently overlooked by administrators and faculty in predominantly white institutions. And yet, minorities cannot possibly navigate the educational system successfully unless they are able to survive socially and psychologically, as well as academically.

Negative attitudes frequently preclude the involvement of black students in campus life. Black students often feel that they are not taken seriously in social situations with whites. Because whites believe that blacks cannot intelligently discuss certain topics, the conversations more often than not involve jokes, and ethnic jokes at that. This situation is doubly offensive to blacks because it is a recognition that whites perceive them as mindless and, worse yet, that whites have most likely tempered their humor in order to accommodate minorities.

In other subliminal and not-so-subtle ways, the minority student is not valued. Since institutions give little consideration to the social needs of black students, structured campus activities make the black students seem imperceptible, not unlike the narrator in Ralph Ellison's *Invisible Man* (1956, p. 7):

> . . .invisible, understand, simply because people refuse to see me. Like the bodiless heads you see sometimes in circus sideshows, it is as though I have been surrounded by mirrors of hard, distorting glass. When they approach me, they see only my surroundings, themselves, or figments of their imagination--indeed, everything and anything but me.

On predominantly white campuses, officially sanctioned drama and glee clubs have access to faculty members who provide direction; these same organizations perform at faculty and institutional functions, receiving free advertising and the acknowledgement which inevitably results from identification with the institution. In contrast, black organizations never receive these invitations or the self-pride that accompanies such recognition. Black choral groups are usually operated and run solely through the energies of students, with little or no institutional support from administrators or faculty. The same situation is true for black theatrical groups.

The failure of predominantly white institutions to meet such diverse social needs has a profound impact on all minority students. In the allocation of student activities funds, minorities may be penalized because those who determine allocations often equate "need" with the number of students "served" by particular activities; then too, without funds to support their activities, minorities remain invisible and entrapped by the narrow perceptions of the majority culture.

To meet these fundamental social needs, institutions must reaffirm their commitment to increasing the number of minority faculty and students, insuring that search and admissions committees make this commitment a reality. As this process continues, it will foster an overt perception of acceptance within the institutional environment. Increasing the number of minority faculty will fill a void for both minority students and the entire academic community because of the unique perspective that a dynamic black faculty can provide. A larger minority presence will enhance the viability of individual minority students by providing additional peers with whom they can share the unique aspects of their culture. At the same time, a larger minority enrollment will benefit all students by increasing the interaction among those of different socio-cultural backgrounds.

It should be noted, however, that admissions and search committees cannot simply increase the number of minority students and faculty. Too often, these committees demonstrate a kind of "tokenism mentality," a preoccupation with the number, rather than the quality, of individual minority applicants. Instead, predominantly white institutions must select minority faculty and students carefully, in order to achieve a balanced sexual mix and a sufficient number of strong leaders and scholars who will likely become involved in campus activities--in short, a well-rounded minority community. By actively pursuing such policies, educational institutions will not only

meet the social needs of minorities but also attract excellent faculty and students to the university or college campus. Moreover, by providing diversity and new perspectives, institutions can change the narrow perceptions which stifle intellectual development and thus enhance the viability of the entire university or college community.

In conclusion, a note of caution must be added here. If predominantly white colleges and universities succeed in providing for the needs of minority students and achieving, at the same time, a diverse, dynamic, and viable academic community, the spirit of the law will have to be applied persistently and continuously within the educational institution itself. More importantly, achieving these goals will require that the letter of the law remain as it is now. Change is not necessarily permanent; laws and interpretations of laws are not necessarily static entities. Therefore, we must continue to insure that this society perceives and remains sensitive to the needs of its member groups.

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MEASURING QUALITY: CONFLICT AND CHALLENGE

Panelists

Charles Bryson, Moderator	Georgia State University
Margaret Sullivan	Georgia State University
Mary Alyce Orahood	University of Arkansas, Little Rock
Robert I. Lewis	University of Arkansas, Little Rock

Charles Bryson, Moderator

The topic of this panel presentation has something to do with measuring quality. Although we're not certain we know all the implications of the topic, we'll share some of our ideas and hope that you in turn will share your ideas about quality and its measurement with us. Ideally we should all approach this topic with an open mind; if need be, we'll use a "can-opener" technique to open up some minds, ideas, and discussion. We'll appreciate your comments and participation, so don't hesitate to interrupt if you feel the need to do so.

Margaret Sullivan will give us a philosophical and theoretical background for measuring quality, as well as a view of how different constituencies may approach the measurement of quality with different perspectives and assumptions. Mary Alyce Orahood will discuss some of the problems institutional researchers confront in the quality measurement business. Then Bob Lewis will deal with the politics of quality and the assumptions and approaches used in the measurement of quality. He also will speak about the political consequences of measuring quality, including ways to avoid the consequences of the consequences.

Margaret Sullivan

I first became interested in *quality education* as the result of many serious errors that I had made in assuming other persons shared my assumptions about the measurement of *quality education*. I continue to make some of these errors concerning shared assumptions. As a matter of fact, I made one colossal error the other day when I described the value of an academic program in terms of program components, rather than in terms of the economic efficiency of the program. The efficiency approach would have had more meaning to the bureaucrat to whom I was speaking.

Often the term *quality* can be used as a powerful weapon. Administrators are extremely sensitive, for example, if the *quality* of a professor's instruction is questioned, and an academic program can be threatened if the *quality* of the program is unsure. The term has many meanings and a heavy connotative impact which advertising exploits. We market products using the term *quality*; we name motels after *quality*; we also use the term with one another in higher education, just to prove our points.

Because of the various ways that the term *quality* is used and because the word seems to be of great significance, I took up a more serious interest. What was the true meaning? To answer the question I decided to review *The Chronicle of Higher Education* for a few months to see how its writers used the term. (Besides the last portion of *The Chronicle*, there are other interesting bits of information.) I noticed that the term was often used in various headlines: "Quality of Research Not Dependent on Level of Support, Study Finds. . . ."; "Reformers Have Sought to Improve the Quality of the College Experience."

The term has tremendous significance and diverse uses, both politically as well as academically. Today I would like to address some of the assumptions underlying its use.

I told Charlie Bryson that I would participate with him on this panel only if it provided some opportunity for me to learn something. I thought this would be a good time to do that. I'd like to do this short exercise with you. Please audience, shout out words that you believe connote quality higher education. Audience: MONEY - - DEGREE OF LEARNING - - INTEGRITY - - OUTCOMES - - MORALITY - - EFFICIENCY - - GRADUATE STUDY.

Now, imagine you are parents and you are about to select a postsecondary institution for your child. Shout out the word that you would use as the criterion for selection. Audience: SELECTIVITY - - PRESTIGE - - PROGRAM OFFERINGS - - VOCATION - - LOCATION - - QUALITY - - COUNSELING - - YOUR OWN SCHOOL - - CAREER OPPORTUNITIES.

Now, you are your children. What schools will you choose? Audience: FAR AWAY FROM HOME - - FOOTBALL - - ACTIVITY PROGRAMS - - CLOSE TO HOME - - SPORTS.

This basic exercise shows the very different assumptions of people based on their perspectives. There are many legitimate reasons for the disagreement. Those answers and constituencies interested in service frequently conflict with those interested in financial accountability. Therefore, when approaching questions of quality it's probably most important to understand the assumptions of those persons asking the question. Haskin Pounds, for example, mentioned this morning that with a data request he must first ask: what is the purpose of the request? What are the assumptions of the person making the inquiry? That's a very, very important point.

The success of measuring quality is based upon the knowledge and perception of the institutional researcher who selects the data. Quality may in fact be a process in which professionals with different assumptions strive to advance higher education. The institutional researcher is a contributor to quality when he/she collects data accurately describing the progress of the search for quality higher education.

Mary Alyce Orahood

Well, one of the things that Larry Jones thought we should consider in preparing this panel was Marvin Peterson's keynote address last year. One of his items was a concern for quality, which he said is more important than ever before in these times of reallocation and retrenchment. How do we decide which program to eliminate? Someone has to make the decision. How do we measure the quality of that program?--By the number of graduates it produces?--By whether or not those graduates got jobs in their fields?--Or by the number of credit hours the program produces? Is the history department better because it produces more credit hours than another department? These are some of the questions that we will be asked to investigate as institutional researchers.

Another of Marv Peterson's concerns was whether we are talking about quality or the measurement of quality. That's also a question we will have to answer.

Institutional researchers will find themselves more and more in the middle. For many years we have been analyzing data and drawing conclusions from those analyses. But analyzing data is very different from assessing the quality of what we have been analyzing. In the past we have left that area to higher administrators, who are now asking us for help. Many times they say, "I want to make this point; give me the data to support it."

Now I'm getting slightly into program evaluation. Assessment of quality and evaluation of programs are very closely linked. As an institutional researcher, I feel that it will be very difficult to separate the two. I feel that we will be asked to evaluate programs with more far-reaching effects, so that we will be assessing the quality of those programs. I might point out another publication written in 1978: AAHE-ERIC Higher Education Research Report No. 8 by Lynn Wood and Barbara Davis, *Designing and Evaluating Higher Education Curriculum*. Several models are also suggested in this book for the type of assessment we are discussing. Three of those models recommend that a person outside the curriculum area make that evaluation.

There is very little information on quality assessment. It's the proverbial "big, squishy marshmallow" that's hard to get a handle on. I did run across a book that was published in 1977, edited by Ben Lawrence and Alan Service from NCHEMS on *Quantitative Approaches to Higher Education Management*. They list four models that can be used to assess quantitatively the quality of various programs: CAMPUS (Comprehensive Analytical Methods for Planning in University/College Systems), HELP/PLANTRAN (Higher Education Long-Range Planning/Planning Translator) RRPM (Resource Requirements Prediction Model--Surely we've all heard of that by now; how many versions are there?), and SEARCH (System for Evaluating Alternative Resource Commitments in Higher Education). These are resource-allocation or

cost-simulation models that have been employed in many universities. In using these in the past, we have asked: "Okay, we've got this many dollars; how are we going to allocate them?" I have determined from my reading that we can use some of these same models to assess the quality of programs, but we have to be very careful in doing so. We have to set very reasonable criteria for the evaluation of these programs.

Robert I. Lewis

What does *quality* mean? When talking about values, you make subjective judgments of worth. Yet in a way, these kinds of judgments are diametrically opposed to what institutional research is supposed to be all about: objectivity, analyzing and interpreting the data, giving valid results. Then all of a sudden you talk in terms of taking that data, turning it around, and making a subjective (rather than objective) judgment of worth. The brochure describing this program indicates that conference participants are trying to address the definition of *quality*. I hope I have done that!

It also indicates that we participants are going to look at different levels of political, financial, and academic entities. Who are these entities? Who has to make the subjective judgments of worth?--Political entities--and it might even be enemies (a Freudian slip there)? Public figures, appointed or elected? Who are they? At your institution it is the board and also the local governing body where your institution is physically located. It is the local governing body because of the tax base and the community resources provided for your college or university--especially if the institution does not have a fire department or has a security force rather than a police force. You are also talking about state governments, even in private institutions (e.g., the 1202 commitment to provide a state coordinating board). At public institutions, state governments become even more involved as political entities through funding appropriations, resource allocations, etc. And today, whether we like it or not, even the national government gets highly involved in higher education institutions by means of the Office of Civil Rights, Equal Employment Opportunity, the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs, the Department of Education, and other such bureaus.

Who are the financial entities? There are the students who have to pay tuition, room, and board. There are the administrators who have to deal with available resources. There are the presidents, chancellors, vice presidents, and vice chancellors who have to be concerned with the allocation of resources. And there are the institutional governing boards who have fiscal and legal responsibility for the institution.

The academic entities include the students, the consumers of a product--i.e., consumers of instruction. Also included are the faculty who deliver the educational program instruction, area coordinators who have to tie things together, department heads, deans, and others.

Frequently, when talking about quality issues in higher education, you tend to envision the quality of an academic program. Sometimes forgotten is the student who attended your institution for two years and departed without a baccalaureate degree. Because this student consumed education while he attended, you should ask about the quality of the education consumed and even about the quality of that student who left the institution after two years. Was the money--i.e., the student's and the institution's--well spent? The quality issue can be addressed to just about any unit of analysis existent in an institution (administrators, faculty, personnel, etc.).

In the *Adams* case--especially in Virginia--one aspect of the quality issue centered on the physical facilities at Virginia State University and Norfolk State University, two public state-supported institutions. The question was whether the physical facilities at these two predominantly black institutions were comparable to the facilities at VPI, the University of Virginia, and other institutions. In this instance, quality was defined in terms of available resources. Were the resources available sufficient to provide quality? The issue is somewhat analogous to a person's having $7,000 and wanting to buy a brand new car of quality. Obviously, if his interpretation of quality is a Mercedes Benz, he does not have sufficient available resources.

Normally, the role of the institutional researcher revolves around data aggregation, collection, manipulation, and interpretation. But when concerned with the question of quality, the institutional researcher frequently assumes a marketing role in order to provide information suggesting that quality prevails on the campus. On the other hand, he or she might want to imply that quality is not prevalent and that additional resources are required to achieve it.

With respect to quality, the institutional researcher's role is to provide objective data. When an administrator requests that you support his position regardless of what the data suggest, you may have a square peg that has to fit into a round hole. If you desire to remain employed in your current position, you may then have to whittle that square peg to make it fit in the round hole. However, you as an institutional researcher should also let the administrator know that, although you are prepared to whittle, the data suggest he secure a square hole.

PROGRAM EVALUATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Larry A. Braskamp University of Illinois

This examination of the status of program evaluation in higher education is divided into four parts. The first examines definitions and varieties of program evaluation; the second, issues involved in designing and implementing program evaluations or reviews; the third, a framework for evaluating academic departments; and the fourth, a brief overview of the variations in academic department evaluation that have existed at the University of Illinois over the past decade.

Definitions

Though evaluation is variously defined, at its core is the judgment (or assessment) of worth or merit. To evaluate something formally means to determine its worth or merit based on some empirical evidence or data (called "evaluative information" in this paper). In higher education that "something" has included three major classes: personnel (faculty, administrators, students), experimental programs (e.g., CAUSE instructional projects funded by NSF) and existing academic, administrative or organizational units (e.g., departments). The valuation of each differs. Personnel evaluation is the most sensitive and threatening, whereas organizational evaluation is the most ambitious, ambiguous, amorphous, and difficult to interpret. The context of an organizational unit--the institution as a whole--needs to be considered in the evaluation of a single unit. Institutions of higher education typically have a long history of internal control, established power bases, and existing strategies for adaptation and survival--all factors which play a part in any evaluation.

In this paper, the focus is on organizational evaluation. The organizational unit can be an academic department, a counseling office in student affairs, a business office, or an institute of environmental studies. The unit has some designated administrative leader and permanent salary lines for staff. Formal evaluation of these units is relatively new, but its growth has been very rapid in recent years. Clark (1977) in a survey of 134 universities with graduate programs found that over one-third of the institutions have some form of systematic departmental review.

Issues

In designing and implementing evaluation systems, several issues need to be considered. They point out some of the complexities, paradoxes, problems, and payoffs of program evaluation in higher education.

1. *Should academic program evaluation be a part of our job responsibilities?* Is there a need for program evaluation? My answer is partly based on Bob Wallhaus' 1979 Association for Institutional Research presidential address, "Institutional Research in the 1980's" (Wallhaus), which stated the following:

> While I postulated that institutional researchers were not heavily involved in academic program decision making in the 1960's, I believe there will be complete reversal by 1990 as institutions increasingly turn their attention to phasing out lower priority programs, to restructuring others and to carrying out the process of academic program review and evaluation. . . .It should be clear, however, that the issues of the eighties will increasingly center on "people problems."

Collective bargaining, faculty development, retrenchment, reorganization problems, and aging faculty are now upon us, and each relates to the quality and future of our efforts in instruction, research, and service.

2. *What should be the nature of program evaluation?* The answer to this question depends upon how we construe the role of evaluation within an organization. Evaluation can be viewed as an act of persuasion within a political context, a theme discussed in *The Logic of Evaluative Argument* by Ernest House (1977:6-7):

> Evaluation persuades rather than convinces, argues rather than demonstrates, is credible rather than certain, is variably accepted rather than compelling. . . .Once the burden of certainty is lifted, the possibilities for informed action are increased rather than decreased.

House is suggesting we view evaluation as different from a scientific investigation aimed for universal generalization and truthfulness, and is urging us to relate evaluation with action and to take into account the audiences. Patton (1978) also emphasizes the need for evaluators to be utilization focused; i.e., to make evaluation useful by reducing decision-maker's uncertainty. Thus functionality is the cornerstone of an effective evaluation. A well-designed system with an extensive data base that is not used by the intended users is not the goal of an evaluation system.

How do we design an evaluation system that will be used? I suggest that we seriously consider the principle of human involvement in the evaluation process. If users care about and are involved in all phases of the evaluation, they will more likely use the information than if they have no information needs and/or do not become involved in the evaluation process. The evaluator is not performing in isolation a set of data manipulations and then presenting some computer printouts to designated users. Rather, one of the major roles of the evaluator is to develop interactive two-way communication channels among users and suppliers of the information. The users

are involved in determining the data to be collected and the ways of interpreting the data. They also check and recheck the accuracy of the data and their interpretation and discuss the action implications. Formal written technical reports at some designated time are only a part of the information flow among faculty and administrators at the local institution. It must be further recognized that users have access to multiple types of information--some formal, some informal, and some highly personal and political. Evaluative information is only one source, and formal evaluative information will not automatically be the sole piece of evidence used in decision-making. The task of the evaluator--to use Robert Stake's phrase--is to get the decision-makers to be surrogate evaluators, not to have the evaluators be the surrogate decision-makers. Thus, the role is still service, but the type of service in program evaluation will be different from the type an institutional researcher normally performs in providing cost data and enrollment data and in fulfilling data demands by external agencies.

The evaluator in this role still is primarily concerned with evidence or evaluative information. The evaluator can be a consultant to the user in matters relating to data collection, analysis, and interpretation; often he collects the information and makes presentations to the users.

Much of the information particularly useful in program evaluation is qualitative in nature. Judgments of worth or merit are necessarily subjective, though diversity of value perspectives is recognized and accepted as important. The evaluation cannot resolve conflicts over value perspectives, but the evaluator needs to identify them and to facilitate means by which they can be integrated into assessments of merit. In sum, an evaluation system should be interactive, involving faculty as well as administrators. The evaluation should be based on qualitative judgment data collected from a variety of sources as well as on fiscal and quantitative data. Finally, two-way communication channels can increase the usefulness of an evaluation.

3. *Is an evaluation system another word for management information system?* If my previous views of evaluation are accepted as reasonable, then an evaluation system is not a quantitatively data-based management information system set up independently of ad hoc local information needs. An evaluation of academic programs involves judgments of quality and effectiveness, as well as of efficiency. This task of making judgments of value must be shared by faculty. Furthermore, those in executive positions, especially in the area of academic policy-making, do not manage; rather, they administrate and provide some type of academic leadership. Parker and Gardner (1978) make a convincing argument for the distinction between managing and administering. Decisions in higher education are predominantly political and responsive, as opposed to managerial or proactive. Goals and objectives of academic programs are ambiguous and elusive and are derived in a political process. Thus, if an information system is to be useful within this type of policy-making process, it should meet local

information needs, be flexible in structure, and be intended and designed to provide information for action. Evaluative information brought to bear in an evaluation thus needs to be credible, timely, adaptable, and highly relevant and focused. Because evaluative information will be used by various groups, each with vested interests, it will not be similarly viewed by all parties. Despite its lack of certainty and universal acceptance, the information still can be used within the decision-making process if we accept House's notion that evaluation is as much argument as scientific investigation.

4. *Are there multiple purposes in evaluation?* Though there are many purposes, the three major ones are program improvement, resource allocation, and accountability. Generally, the purpose should influence the type of evaluation system designed and implemented. If the purpose is for improvement, then specific diagnostic information about program staff, students, and governance procedures is most appropriate, and the evaluation process should be structured primarily to serve the local departments. A self-study is a useful evaluation strategy for this purpose. An evaluation can lead to curriculum and operational changes without reallocation of funds. If the purpose is to help administrators make allocation decisions, then information about costs and quality--information that can be collected uniformly from all departments--seems more appropriate. At a conference we held on program evaluation last winter, we found that external review committees were viewed by participants as a viable strategy for either purpose. According to some, the same information may be collected for all purposes but aggregated and used differently. This distinction between the purposes mostly disappears in practice. All are served in varying degrees, despite the rhetoric.

5. *Do the data (evidence) collected in a program evaluation adequately represent the program being evaluated?* Evaluation is the assessment of worth or merit, but operationally we evaluate using criteria. Criteria are dimensions or characteristics of a program that are selected to be used to assess value; e.g., amount of student learning, student credit hours produced, scholarly production of the faculty, number of clients served in a health center. In a formal evaluation, we use indicators or measures to procure information about the criteria. For example, average number of faculty publications in referred journals provides us with some data about the criterion, faculty quality in scholarship. Criteria can be explicit and implicit; e.g., faculty-student ratio or achievement scores versus faculty perceptions of the scholarly environment of a department. In many formal evaluations explicit criteria are advocated, because they provide a sense of security and truthfulness. As someone recently said, "at least we have hard data." In my opinion, this tendency to rely on quantitative data, however, has led to some unfortunate consequences. First, when we select explicit criteria, we take into account technical and psychometric characteristics of the data, but we may ignore credibility of data. Credibility is the extent to which users trust the data for

their use. If usefulness of the evaluation is to be enhanced, then we need to ask potential users which information they will actually consider in making judgments of value.

Second, explicit criteria and quantitative indicators and measures may not adequately represent the unique, distinguishing features of a department. How much error is involved in the abstracting process of summarizing data based on quantitative indices? Does the selection of only a few indicators tell the whole story? For example, the number of student credit hours produced by a department is a frequent indicator of departmental efficiency and may imply effectiveness. But do these data reflect teaching effort and time, quality of teaching, different teaching modes necessitated by differences in disciplines, student demand for courses, and quality of student-teaching relationships? The inability of a single measure to represent all aspects of a program often goes unheeded; we too quickly defend its use on its explicitness, rather than its representational value. Thus, we may need holistic professional judgments about program quality in our evaluations, even though they are viewed as more subjective.

Third, can one who uses explicit criteria be a better judge of quality or effectiveness than another who bases his/her decisions on experience, common sense, and the integration of multiple and highly personalized criteria? To what extent are we willing to trust reasoned professional judgments, rather than summaries of large data bases? Robert Stake points out that people have multiple-cutoff criteria. They may judge a program to be of sufficient value only if the program meets minimal levels of performance or standards on a number of criteria; e.g., student credit hours generated, quality of teaching, or centrality. On the other hand, others may be more compensatory in their judgments; i.e., they may tolerate a lower level of performance in one area if performance in another area is unusually high.

Fourth, the use of explicit criteria might unduly enforce policy decisions in directions not intended or desired. For example, on our campus the use of student credit hours (SCH) as a criterion of instructional effort is receiving more and more attention as a basis for resource reallocations. Given this increased attention, faculty and college administrators are now seeking practices to generate SCH and to adjust their educational programs around the generation of SCH. For example, various strategies for increasing SCH are being advocated: mandating more required courses within a college for a student major, discouraging and even denying electives outside the college, requiring professors to teach introductory courses to attract more students, etc. Those in organizations, including faculty and administrators, behave very much like students in a classroom. They first look to see how they are going to be evaluated and then adapt their behavior to maximize the chances of looking good.

Fifth, the use of centrally collected data as indicators of explicit criteria may also affect the importance of the various audiences in the decision-making process. A

centralized data system may result in less authority at the local level; i.e., departmental input may be reduced. Do we need common guidelines, common criteria with common data bases to judge quality? Where should the locus of control be? In matters of judging academic quality and practices, a decentralized approach seems advisable to me.

6. *What emphasis do you place on merit and worth?* Merit and worth are two facets of value (Scriven, 1978: Lincoln and Guba, 1980). They are distinguished by the extent to which the value of something is influenced by its context. Merit is context free, but worth can only be determined in relation to context. The assessment of worth requires knowledge about local political, social, economic, and cultural factors. This distinction is more easily apparent in evaluating individual faculty than departments, but it can also be important in resource reallocations. As budgets become tighter, the empnasis switches from merit to worth. Given the local political climate and the need for economic accountability, we often evaluate the program in terms of its centrality (i.e., the extent to which the department is needed and contributes to the vitality and effectiveness of the institution as a whole). Administrators are perhaps more willing than faculty to accept this emphasis on worth, and one task of the evaluator may be to collect information that shows the centrality of a department.

7. *Who cares about using the evaluative information?* Evaluation is undertaken in a social and political environment in which the actors have vested interests in the evaluation and its process. Recently, there has been considerable research on the utilization of scientific and technical knowledge and evaluative information (e.g., Braskamp and Brown, 1980; Rothman, 1980). Two generalizations have emerged: first, someone must be interested in, care for, and need the information in order for it to be used; second, the best way to transfer information is through interaction between the transmitter and the receiver. According to Havelock (1980), "[e]ffective communication, however, is not a one-way process; rather, it is a dialogue which takes place over time, which allows a full sharing of concerns on both sides, and which allows for the reshaping of the message to suit the needs, concerns, and circumstances of the receiver" (p. 19). Thus, the human factor is critical at the local implementation level (Patton, 1978). In most program evaluations, multiple audiences (e.g., department, Office of Vice President for Academic Affairs, regents, state coordinating boards) can easily be identified. Each has its unique information needs and potential uses. Designing an evaluation system minimally to meet the needs of all audiences may result in some compromises, but the challenge is still present.

8. *What are the costs and benefits of the evaluation system?* Evaluation can be dysfunctional as well as beneficial. How much evaluation can people take? What is the

balance between the need for information and the ability to use that information? Costs include disruptive effects to the governance process, possible erosion of the thrust to be creative, controversial, and experimental, as well as the financial and personnel costs needed to implement an evaluation.

Benefits include a better basis for decision-making, increased understanding of a department, and a strategy for involving faculty in a systematic and formal way in the policy-making process. Finally, improvement can result merely from the special attention given to a program during and following an evaluation.

Framework for Evaluation

The ten questions in this framework represent a practical guide for designing and implementing a departmental evaluation system in higher education. Each question is a building block in the final evaluation plan. The strength of the plan is the extent to which the answers to the ten questions are logical, coherent, and feasible. Even though you should start with the first question, your answer to it cannot stand alone; each answer must be considered in light of all the answers.

The interrelationship of the questions and the evaluation framework itself should be evident from the listing of the major areas to be considered in the evaluation process and the key questions for each area. 1. Purpose--What are the major purposes for conducting a program evaluation; i.e., why evaluate? What function does it have? What are reasons for it, and what uses will be made of the evaluation? 2. Program description--What are the major goals, identifying features, planned and unplanned outcomes or products, salient issues and concerns of the program being evaluated? 3. Criteria--What criteria are to be used to determine departmental quality (strengths and weaknesses), merit, worth and value? 4. Audiences--For which audiences (groups of persons internal and external to the department) is the evaluation intended? 5. Organization--How is the evaluation system organized? 6. Questions--What major questions does the evaluation address? (These questions are to help focus the evaluation; i.e., what specifically do the audiences need to know about the program?) 7. Data and Information--What data (evidence; evaluative, fiscal, statistical information) should be collected in an evaluation? 8. Collection of Data--What sources of data, instrumentation, and administrative arrangements are to be employed in the collection of the data? 9. Analysis and Summary of Data--How are the data to be analyzed and summarized in light of the criteria and purposes of the evaluation? 10. Interpretation, Communication, and Utilization--How are data interpreted, communicated, and utilized?

Further direction and clarification for each evaluation area and question are provided by a set of checkpoints and issues to consider in developing a response to the specific question. These checkpoints and issues represent important practical considerations, but they are not exhaustive. Although space does not permit a complete development of the question, checkpoint, and issue aspect of the framework here, the detail

is available and was presented at a workshop at the 1980 Association for Institutional Research Forum in Atlanta.

This framework does not assume a particular evaluation model (e.g., goal-based or goal-free) or the collection of specific types of data. It is a procedural and analytical device rather than a model for evaluation. It identifies the major tasks needed to conduct an evaluation and the salient issues, assumptions, and problems faced in any program evaluation.

There are three features of this framework. First, criteria are the cornerstone; they can be implicit as well as explicit. Second, evaluation is viewed as an ongoing process. Third, evaluation is to be functional and useful. The litmus test of an evaluation system is the extent to which it improves the institution.

University of Illinois System: COPE

In early 1972, a blue-ribbon committee recommended that the University of Illinois examine its academic programs in light of the projected future of higher education. A faculty-dominated Council on Program Evaluation (COPE) was established to conduct cyclical, intensive reviews of all academic and administrative programs to help departments improve quality and to provide administrators with information for reallocation of resources. This dual purpose has stayed relatively intact, but the approach used to evaluate departments has evolved considerably. Initially, task groups of seven to twelve faculty and one to two students were selected to conduct an in-depth review. They had access to central data files and conducted extensive interviews according to established guidelines. The task was so demanding of faculty time that in 1975 this approach was altered. Self-evaluation by the department using COPE guidelines became the major strategy. Selected COPE members were assigned to review the self-evaluation, seek additional information if necessary, and discuss problems with unit administration, faculty, and other appropriate administrators. If COPE considered the self-evaluation inadequate, a task force was appointed to collect further information. For the remainder of the six years in the first cyclical review, intensive self-evaluations were conducted and reviewed by COPE members, who then communicated to the units an evaluation of the departments and recommendations for action.

In designing the second cycle, COPE members and others recommended a two-stage evaluation system. The first stage involves a screening of all departments on a seven-year cycle. In this stage, statistical data (e.g., FTE, enrollments, instructional costs) from the Office of Administrative Studies, faculty vitae, judgment data based on students and faculty perspectives about the departmental operations, curricula, and governance, and departmental responses to five open-ended questions form the data base. Judgmental and qualitative data are given considerable weight. After these data are collected (usually in the fall semester), COPE assembles a sourcebook, which is sent to the assigned COPE subcommittee and the departments. The subcommittee

and departments discuss the sourcebook to obtain departments' perspective of the evaluation. Then the entire COPE meets (usually for two hours) to discuss the department. Based on this discussion, COPE staff formulates conclusions and recommendations which are reviewed and approved by COPE and then distributed to departments. The COPE subcommittee goes back to the department to discuss recommendations in the draft letters and makes a final report to COPE. COPE discusses and approves the final letter, which is sent to the department, Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs, and dean of the appropriate college. Within six months, the Vice Chancellor meets with the Dean (and School Head where appropriate) to discuss action about the department that should be undertaken based on the COPE review as well as other action not directly related to COPE. This exchange gives an opportunity for the Vice Chancellor to discuss with the Deans (and School Heads) the future of each department on an assigned periodic basis.

The second stage is designed to be optional. If problems that affect departmental quality are identified in the first phase, COPE implements a second evaluation stage using one of three options: 1. COPE asks the department to address some questions of concern and to report back to COPE (usually within six months); 2. COPE invites an external review team to study specified concerns (e.g., a serious discipline-related problem); and 3. COPE appoints an on-campus task group to investigate areas of concern.

The evaluation in this cycle differs from the first cycle in the amount of informal dialogue between the COPE members and faculty from the departments. The evaluation process is more interactive; ie., COPE members and local departmental administrators and faculty are engaged in more person-to-person contact. Initially there is negotiation on what information needs to be collected and on the identification of major issues and problems; then mutual discussions of uncovered issues and concerns between COPE and the department continue the evaluation strategy. Follow-up discussions on possible action by higher-level administration are also part of the COPE process, with particular emphasis placed on the linkage between evaluation and development.

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MEETING THE CHALLENGE OF IMPLEMENTING GENUINE ACADEMIC PROGRAM DISCONTINUANCE IN THE 1980'S

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Implementation of genuine program discontinuance at institutions of higher learning during the 1980's has been relatively limited. However, the planning environment likely in the 1980's may force institutions to implement genuine reductions in the breadth of their academic offerings to preserve the integrity, quality, and financial support base of those academic degree programs which they consider central to their institutional identity or purpose.

Leadership of individual institutions during program discontinuance will be among the greatest challenges faced by academic administrators during the 1980's. The following suggestions which concern meeting this challenge are the result of a brief review of the literature, personal experience, and observation of degree program discontinuation on several campuses. While these suggestions are by no means all-inclusive, they represent in several instances "crystal clear hindsight" which might well have eased the institution through program discontinuance and saved the administrators involved from academic ostracism.

Conducting Program Discontinuance

Once the decision to close an academic program has been made, the role of the institutional researcher is diminished somewhat and that of the academic planner sustained. Of primary concern to the academic planners responsible for conducting program discontinuance are (a) an affirmation of commitment to program closure, (b) facilitation of acceptance of the program discontinuance as "legitimate," and (c) management of the actual phasing out of the program.

Affirmation of Commitment to Program Closure. A clear statement announcing the institution's intention to close the academic degree program should be the first indication of a firm commitment to act upon the results of the degree program review process. This statement should originate from the group or individual recognized as the institution's final authority in the matter. Within public systems of higher education, such a statement would emanate from the central governing board. The board of trustees, or a similar such body, would be expected to issue a statement of commitment to closure of an academic program at an individual institution.

Following a decision to discontinue a program, there must be strong leadership and commitment by the institution's administrators to conduct the closure as directed by their board. While individual administrators (normally from the degree program area affected) should be expected to argue until the decision is made, it is important that after announcement of that decision all academic administrators turn their attention

to carrying out the decision in a professional manner. The commitment of academic administrators to the orderly discontinuance of the program must begin with the chief executive officer and extend through the vice president, dean and department chairperson involved. While each should be expected to retain his original feelings regarding the ultimate wisdom of the decision to close the program, that decision should be considered past; those unwilling to take part in implementing the decision should submit their resignations. Such a commitment is necessary to counteract the likely faculty reaction to the decision.

Facilitation of Acceptance of Program Discontinuance as "Legitimate." Extreme faculty reluctance to support program discontinuance, regardless of the evidence resulting from the degree program review process, can be expected. Edward A. Dougherty in his article, "What is the Most Effective Way to Handle Program Discontinuance?," writes that "faculty don't close programs . . .". Dougherty contends in the article that faculty are concerned about (a) the moral and legal obligations to their colleagues, (b) starting a downward spiral of decline in enrollment into which they themselves may be drawn, and (c) making a final judgment concerning the quality of a colleague's work (Dougherty, 1979).

While the reaction by faculty members directly affected by program discontinuance may expectedly be quite strong, administrative commitment will normally sustain the decision, provided that the act is generally considered "legitimate" by the balance of the campus community. This inferral of "legitimacy" by those responsible for implementing the program discontinuance should be based upon related actions taken both before and at the time of the program discontinuance announcement.

Among those related actions that will add to the perceived fairness or legitimacy of the decision are the following (see Figure 1):

(a) *Explanation of the Need for Program Review*--At the outset of the program review process, it is important that the campus community be made aware of the reasons for that review process. If possible, it should be placed within the overall context of planning for the future development and welfare of the institution. Above all, the notion that the program review process is targeted against any specific academic area should be dispelled.

(b) *Building of Confidence in the Program Review Process*--While no program review procedure will ever be considered "perfect," the credibility of any process can be enhanced by the professional and objective manner in which it is developed and executed. In

Figure 1

ACTIONS TAKEN TO FACILITATE ACCEPTANCE
OF PROGRAM DISCONTINUANCE AS "LEGITIMATE"

Actions Taken Before Announcement

1. Explanations of the Need for Program Review
2. Building of Confidence in the Review Procedure
3. Establishment of Objective Criteria for Program Continuance
4. Participation of Faculty

Actions Taken at Time of Announcement

1. Announcement that Obligations to Students and Faculty in the Affected Academic Degree Program Will Be Honored
2. Adjustment of Institutional Mission Statement
3. Establishment of Procedure for a Final Appeal
4. Reallocation of Resources into Other Degree Programs

this regard, the skill of the institutional researcher in conducting the review is critical to acceptance of the discontinuance decision. "Shortcuts" taken around a thorough academic program review process will become evident to all after the discontinuance is announced and will constitute a major obstacle to establishing the "legitimacy" of the decision.

(c) *Establishment of Objective Criteria for Program Discontinuance*--Though ultimately the decision to discontinue an academic program must be in the form of a value judgment, establishment of objective criteria for program continuation during design of the review process substantially strengthens the necessary judgments. If the data available clearly are insufficient to meet the agreed-upon criteria for program continuation, the decision to discontinue the program will gain enhanced credibility on the campus.

(d) *Participation of Faculty*--The early and comprehensive involvement of the faculty in the program review process will enhance the "legitimacy" of the ultimate program discontinuance decision. Of particular interest is the involvement of any "resident experts" concerning program review from the faculty.

Once the intent to discontinue an academic degree program has been announced, the institution should take a number of steps to further ease acceptance of the decision on the campus. Among those steps which should be undertaken are the following:

(a) *Simultaneous Announcement that Obligations to Students and Faculty in the Affected Academic Degree Program Will be Honored by the Institution*--At the time that the announcement of discontinuance is made, it is important that the institution indicate its intention to honor legal and moral commitments to students in the program, as well as to the faculty and staff. This announcement should be as specific as possible in the description of procedures to be followed for honoring commitments. By so doing, the institution reduces the immediate anxiety of those directly affected and assures the campus community that it will function in a professional manner to implement the decision.

(b) *Adjustment of Institutional Mission Statement*--It is important that any general institutional policy document, such as a mission statement, be modified to exclude any reference to the discontinued

program. In most institutions, a useful statement of institutional mission or purpose does not exist. Care should therefore be taken at the time program discontinuance is announced to modify or rescind whatever policy statement originally authorized the program.

(c) *Establishment of a Procedure for a Final Appeal*--Even though the intent to discontinue has been announced, it is important that the administration be regarded by the campus community as demonstrating continued "openness" and "fairness" concerning the subject. For this reason, it is advisable that a time be designated at which those faculty and students wishing to make a final appeal on behalf of the degree program may be heard by the group (board of trustees, central governing board, etc.) vested with final authority for program discontinuance. Even though a change in the decision is unlikely, this process channels the latent discontent of those affected into a final appeal, rather than diffusing it across the campus into an informal assault on the decision.

(d) *Reallocation of Resources Into Other Degree Programs*--It is important to make the campus community aware that resources gradually being phased out of the discontinued degree program will be available for reallocation to strengthen the remaining degree programs at the institution. In such a way the decision is placed in the best light available, and those not directly affected by the degree program discontinuance are offered some hope of their own gain as a result of the reallocated resources.

By these actions, both before the announcement of program discontinuance and at the time of the announcement, the legitimacy of the institution's decision will be enhanced significantly. The campus community's initial acceptance of the decision is the greatest obstacle before consideration of the actual steps necessary to phase out the degree program.

Management of the Phasing Out of An Academic Degree Program --The administrative procedures necessary for discontinuing an academic degree program primarily involve fulfillment of the institution's responsibilities to the students, faculty, and staff in the program.

The institution's responsibility to its students results primarily from the contractual obligation expressed in the catalog under which students enrolled for the degree program subject to discontinuance. Under the most extreme circumstance, the institution has a four-year commitment to students at the freshman level entering a baccalaureate program identified for discontinuance. However, this extreme is rarely realized because of the very limited number of students in a program being discontinued (a fact frequently cited to justify program discontinuance) and the tendency of most students to shift to a related degree program upon notification of the pending discontinuance. Under extreme circumstances, extended obligations to students can be meshed with the gradual phasing out of faculty positions associated with the program.

The institution's responsibility to faculty and staff employed in support of the academic degree program is a more complex matter. Part of this complexity stems from the generally vague understanding about academic fields in which an individual is "qualified" to teach. Should individual tenured faculty members be judged qualified to teach in another discipline at the institution, there is little course of action other than transferring the faculty member.

When the faculty member is qualified to teach in no other discipline, the alternatives open to the institution and the faculty member include (a) re-education, (b) early retirement, (c) acceptance of an administrative position, and (d) termination. While re-education or training in a related discipline is not now a readily accepted alternative, it may gain increasing attractiveness among younger faculty members in fields whose general outlook is not considered promising. Several institutions have granted early retirement to tenured faculty members upon discontinuance of their programs. In most cases, the institution has made a financial commitment to the early retirement option to enhance the attractiveness of this alternative to the faculty member. In several instances, tenured faculty members have chosen to accept lesser administrative positions with the institution, rather than be terminated. The last alternative, and clearly the least attractive to the institution and the tenured faculty member, is termination of employment. Institutions have shown an extreme tendency to avoid this alternative at virtually any cost.

The institution's responsibility to untenured faculty members is more limited. In most cases, they are severed from employment with the institution. This action should be taken in accordance with the proper notification dates; in many cases, it is also softened with assistance in finding another position. A clear statement in the faculty member's letter of reference that his termination was not related to his competency is generally provided, along with other assistance often described as "out placement."

The management of program discontinuance is a long-term affair. Because of the institution's responsibilities both to the faculty and to the students involved in the program, discontinuance is more accurately described as a phasing out, rather than a termination. The cessation of student acceptance into the program and the notification of faculty and staff should be followed by a period of gradual decline in faculty, students, and courses offered. It is important to monitor the progress of this phasing out to ensure that the institution's responsibilities to both students and faculty are honored.

The Future of Academic Program Discontinuance

Writing recently in the quarterly sourcebook, *New Directions for Institutional Research,* Eugene C. Craven indicates his assessment of the future role of academic program review and discontinuation (Craven, 1980):

> The much anticipated decade of the 1980s has arrived. The demand for accountability and the conditions of fiscal austerity are expected to continue and, perhaps, to increase. The major new developments of the decade, however, are the projected demographic changes and their anticipated rapid and substantial impact on enrollments and, hence, funding of institutions. Academic program evaluation now assumes added importance: What programs are most central to an institution's mission? On what basis should decisions of resource reallocation or reduction among programs be made? What fixed resources must be maintained to safeguard the quality of academic programs? How can programs be mounted in financially stringent times to meet the changing educational needs of students, society, and scholarships? The very survival of certain academic programs and even some institutions may be at stake.

While Craven's comments appear to be somewhat extreme, they reflect the current conventional wisdom regarding the future of academic degree program review and discontinuation.

Craven's litany of questions regarding the future of program review and discontinuance can be traced (a) to the generally worsening financial conditions anticipated in the 1980's and (b) to continuing external pressure for accountability by the public. There are few in the field of higher education who expect financial support for higher education to keep pace with inflation during the 1980's. The result of this condition will be steadily decreasing real financial support for the academic programs of most institutions. In addition, there seems little doubt that pressures from representatives of the public for evidence of institutional action in this regard, state-level degree program

reviews/discontinuations, and the loss of institutional autonomy which frequently accompanies this phenomenon can be expected to increase.

The alternatives open to institutions in the matter of program review/discontinuation are relatively few. If they take no action to address steadily declining real support for academic programs through review and discontinuance, the overall quality of academic programming will decline gradually in the 1980's. At an unspecified time, the pressure created by this decline in the quality of all programs, coupled with the public enthusiasm for evidence of institutional accountability, can be expected to trigger program review/discontinuation by an external agency. Under these circumstances, the institution forfeits most of its control of the programs identified for continuation. This course of action results then in both (a) an overall regression of the financial base of each degree program, and (b) the loss of a substantial measure of institutional autonomy regarding an essential element of its identity.

The other alternative open to institutions is initiation of the program review and discontinuance process itself. While only a limited number of institutions will choose this course of action, because of the campus political environment and the desire not to "make waves," it does have several benefits. First, by initiating the academic degree program review and discontinuance process itself, the institution has greater control over the criteria utilized and the decisions made concerning program continuance. Second, those programs continuing at the institution are strengthened from the reallocation of funds.

Primary obstacles to institutional implementation of degree program review and discontinuance are the political ramifications which are likely on each campus. Without the threat of an external source convincing the campus community that its long-range best interest is to narrow and focus institutional academic offerings, initiation of program review and discontinuance will be a difficult task at the very best. In acknowledgement of the sensitivity of the program discontinuance issue, one institution is seeking to identify a limited number of programs for development toward "excellence" in the 1980's by providing funding priority in these areas. In such a way, the financial base and potential quality of these programs will be retained while the political ramifications of discontinuing other programs outright is temporarily avoided. This approach may gain more widespread acceptance on campuses during the time immediately ahead.

The implementation of academic degree program discontinuation in the 1980's is somewhat analagous to the television commercial which depicts a service station attendant totaling the cost of a major engine overhaul caused by the owner's failure to change oil and filter frequently. At the close of that commercial, the service station attendant indicates that the owner of the automobile has the choice of either "Pay me now" (apparently a relatively modest sum) or "Pay me later" (a staggering

bill). Institutions of higher education in the 1980's face an overhaul of the academic engine, and their choice is a similar one. Either pay the price of institutional initiation of academic program review and discontinuance, or later pay the greater price of overall decline in academic program quality and potential forfeiture of a portion of their institutional autonomy.

Unfortunately, I predict that most academic leaders will choose to let "someone else" pay the greater price at a later time. However, for those institutions farsighted enough to consider the benefits of initiating academic degree program review and discontinuance, the guidelines reviewed can assist in keeping the price within those limits considered affordable by the institution and the administrators involved.

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PERILS AND PITFALLS OF PROGRAM DISCONTINUANCE: AN APPROACH-AVOIDANCE CONFLICT

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As children, many of us were fascinated with the use of secret codes and the invention of new words that only we and our closest friends could interpret. As adults, we seem to continue that fascination through the creation of professional jargon. Have you ever stopped to consider just how dull our lives as professionals would be and, I might add, how empty would be our professional journals, if we could not continuously create and adopt new jargon?

The synonymous terms *program discontinuance* and *program closure* are relatively recent additions to our professional vocabulary. In this paper, my remarks concerning them have been organized into three parts. The first will concern the definition of program discontinuance. Following that, I will present some observations about the occurrence of program discontinuance in recent years; and finally, I will examine some of the primary reasons why most of us in higher education experience an approach-avoidance conflict when considering the advisability of program discon-continuance.

What is Program Discontinuance?

Paraphrasing from my dictionary's definition, *jargon* is defined as strange, outlandish, confused, and unintelligible gibberish; it is technical terminology with a vague meaning and full of long, high-sounding words that are often pretentious, unnecessarily obscure, or esoteric. Although the terms *program discontinuance* and *program closure* are not so unintelligible as some in our professional vocabulary, they appear sufficiently vague and high-sounding to qualify as jargon. They qualify in one other respect as well.

When jargon is created to describe a process or thing generally perceived as onerous or aversive, words are carefully selected to mask or soften any negative connotations. Those who have experienced the process of closing academic degree programs and making the associated reductions in personnel positions and budget support would probably agree without hesitation that program discontinuance is often a very onerous and aversive task in our profession. When it must be done, its advocates prefer to describe it in the most neutral way possible. *Discontinuing* or *closing* degree programs sounds a little less inflammatory than such terms as *cutting, shutting down, killing,* or *axing* degree programs. Some individuals, particularly those opposed to any reduction in degree programs at an institution, have been known to prefer these latter, less genteel terms, however.

Program discontinuance is most frequently associated with program review or program evaluation. It represents one of several alternative objectives of the program review process: identifying or targeting weak programs for termination. Although program discontinuance is sometimes considered the sole objective of program review, other purposes (such as the improvement and orderly development of programs) can be served as well.

Discontinuing existing academic programs which are no longer productive or viable so that the institutional resources can be recaptured or reallocated is not a new idea. This approach, however, is receiving increased attention in our professional journals and meetings. Spiraling inflation, declining enrollments, and reductions in state appropriations in recent years have seriously strained the operating budgets of many colleges and universities, public and private alike. As a result, cost-cutting strategies currently occupy a prominent place in the literature of higher education. The popularity of program discontinuance as an approach to institutional retrenchment appears to be on the rise, particularly among legislators and members of coordinating boards of higher education.

Advocates of program discontinuance frequently fashion their arguments around the financial advantages of program closure. The closing of weak or marginal programs is proposed on the grounds that it can significantly reduce expenditures and save money. In cases where initial savings may be minimal, cost avoidance in the future becomes a factor to be considered, particularly over the long run. When the fiscal condition of an institution is relatively stable, program discontinuance is advocated on the grounds that the freed funds can provide a margin of budgetary flexibility or can be reallocated to enhance the quality and strength of continuing programs and functions of the institution.

Does Program Discontinuance Occur in the Real World?

I believe that the answer to that basic question is both yes and no.

If we limit our operational definition of program discontinuance to the process and act of reducing the number of degree programs offered by colleges and universities, then there is ample evidence in the literature documenting the actual occurrence of program discontinuance. For example, last year in an issue of *Research in Higher Education*, Jacqueline Skubal (1979) reported the results of her survey of 37 state-level coordination agencies concerning the discontinuance of academic programs in state colleges and universities. She reported that nearly 1,000 academic programs had

been discontinued since 1970 in the states represented by those agencies.

On the other hand, if program discontinuance is operationally defined as not only the closing of a academic program but also the terminating of personnel positions and budget support associated with that program, then the phenomenon occurs much less frequently than might be suggested in data from Skubal's survey. Skubal's data support such a conclusion in that most of the state-level agencies reporting program closures did not know what, if any, resources had been saved or reallocated as a result.

One reason why the occurrence of program discontinuance appears to differ depending on one's definition of program closure is that programs are often closed on paper but not in practice. I will call this phenomenon *pseudo-discontinuance.* Pseudo-discontinuance occurs when an institution's inventory of degree programs is reduced without any reduction in the curriculum, staffing or instructional budget of the institution. It can easily be accomplished, particularly when the initial inventory of majors or degree programs is highly specialized within academic disciplines.

Suppose, for example, that an institution's inventory of degree programs includes the following five doctoral programs in education: elementary education, early childhood education, English education, math education, and reading. As an economy measure, a statewide coordinating agency directs this institution to reduce the number of doctoral programs it offers in the field of education. The institution can achieve an 80% reduction in its programs by simply combining its five doctoral specialties into one and labeling it "curriculum and instruction." Typically, such an action would be sufficient to satisfy the coordinating agency, even though combining the five programs may have required nothing more than a redefinition of their status--moving them from a status of separate doctoral programs to the status of specialty tracks or concentrations in the doctoral program of curriculum and instruction. When that is done, the curriculum, staffing, and instructional budget of the institution remain unchanged. Obviously, one of the major objectives of program discontinuance--saving resources--is not served through a process of pseudo-discontinuance.

Although pseudo-discontinuance is a common practice in academe, it is not responsible for all program closings. Genuine program discontinuance occurs as well. Descriptions of such program closings appear regularly in our professional periodicals. Some have even involved the termination of tenured faculty positions. In fact, most institutional mergers and closings involve genuine program discontinuance on a large scale.

Why Do We Avoid Program Discontinuance?

Program discontinuance is an intuitively appealing concept. To many, it appears to be a reasonable and rational approach to the administration of institutional resources. If it is so reasonable and rational, what accounts for the great reluctance to pursue program discontinuance in our colleges and universities? Why is program discontinuance not practiced in the good financial times as well as the bad? Why do some institutions resort to pseudo-discontinuance when faced with the task of program discontinuance?

The answers to questions such as these are not simple, and I will not attempt to identify all aspects of this multi-faceted problem. I will review, however, several major factors that restrict or discourage attempts to discontinue academic programs in colleges and universities.

One factor is actually a cluster of related concerns that pertain to an institution's legal and moral obligations in situations of program discontinuance. Several issues arise: who or what group in an institution has the authority to discontinue an academic program? What legal and moral obligations does the institution have to the continued employment of faculty and staff associated with a program to be terminated? What legal and moral obligations does the institution have to the students currently enrolled in a program slated for discontinuance? What obligations exist to alumni, particularly to those graduates of the program who may have contributed annually to the financial support of the institution because of it? What are the legal implications of discontinuing a program that has attracted restricted gifts or endowment funds? The prospect of having to formulate answers to such questions and to defend those answers can be reason enough for administrators to shy away from program discontinuance.

Identifying the institutional obligations associated with the closure of an academic program is only one of the hurdles. An even more troublesome obstacle is the development and implementation of strategies to accomplish program discontinuance without embroiling the institution and its chief administrators, including institutional researchers and planners, in deep controversy or without inciting a major revolt. Here, great care must be taken to avoid incurring the wrath of A.A.U.P., accreditation agencies, and others with political clout.

The size of an institution is another important factor which restricts efforts to discontinue programs. A question which has not yet been adequately addressed in the literature of higher education is whether the process of program discontinuance represents a realistic or practical option for the small college. Those who have contributed to the literature on program closure have done so typically from the

perspective and experience of a large university or a statewide coordinating agency. Since roughly two-thirds of all senior colleges and universities in the United States can be classified as small in that they enroll fewer than 2,500 students, this question is obviously pertinent to a large sector of the higher education community. It is my contention that, for most small colleges experiencing financial distress, termination of academic programs is typically not a realistic option for college administrators, and that in some situations such actions deepen rather than relieve an institution's financial crisis.

Because the role and scope of most small colleges is typically either highly focused or single-purpose in orientation, the curriculum and degree programs of small institutions tend to be more restricted and homogeneous than those of a large university. This fact, coupled with the opportunities for interpersonal interaction among the faculty, staff, and administrators at a small college, tends to create a greater sense of institutional identity and oneness than may be present on most large university campuses. Thus, the closing of an academic program frequently represents a greater threat to the whole faculty or the whole student body of a small college than to their counterparts in a large university where there is greater autonomy among academic units and more interpersonal anonymity. Furthermore, in some situations the programs which may be least viable in a small college may be among the most central to the historical mission of the institution--a fact precluding their closure.

Most important, the small college (particularly one in financial distress) is constantly struggling to maintain a positive image in order to attract students and persuade potential donors to invest in the institution's future. Administrators of the small college literally cannot afford to do anything that might create the image of a college in trouble. Clearly, the risk of developing a negative image through the process of program discontinuance at the small college is much greater than that faced by administrators of a large university.

Regrettably, another factor that inhibits program discontinuance and affects faculty and administrators alike is the influence of self-interest and political expedience. In reporting the results of his research on the process of program closure at eleven large research universities last year, Edward Dougherty (1979) made these observations about the role of the faculty in program discontinuance:

> The most important thing about control and leadership as it relates to program discontinuance is that there were virtually no cases in which programs were closed as a result of faculty actions. Faculty don't close

> programs, for a variety of reasons. They are concerned about the moral and legal obligations to their colleagues; they fear setting off a downward spiral of decline; and they are reluctant to make a final judgment of a colleague's quality. One dean said his faculty were suffering from "survivor's guilt"--that is, they would ask, "Why not me?" whenever a colleague was threatened by program closure. The reluctance of faculty to make cuts in their own programs means that strong leadership is called for to pursue what may be very unpopular decisions.

In fairness to faculty, it has been my observation that many administrators feel and act in much the same way and for many of the same reasons. It is not easy for an administrator to pursue and make unpopular decisions. Furthermore, anyone who values job security or aspires to higher positions of leadership is hesitant to take any action that might make waves or burn bridges; this reluctance is characteristic of presidents and chancellors as well as vice presidents, deans, and department chairmen. As much as we would like to think that academicians are immune to the influences of self-interest and political expedience, this is just not so for a large number of us.

Finally, the issue of costs versus benefits contributes to the avoidance of program closure. Ironic as it may seem, program discontinuance is frequently discounted as a viable option, because the anticipated benefits are not considered worth the costs. There is growing recognition of the fact that program discontinuance usually does not save much money. Marginal programs that qualify as candidates for discontinuance are typically not high-budget items. Furthermore, promises of future savings or cost avoidance must be weighed against possible financial losses, which can include reductions in tuition revenues resulting from smaller student enrollment, reduced revenues in auxiliary enterprises such as dormitory housing and food services, reduced gift income, and special expenses such as severance payments for tenured faculty who are terminated or unemployment benefits to released personnel. Some of these financial losses result directly from the closing of programs, while others may arise as a result of the discontinuance process itself and the negative public relations created.

The intangible cost of program discontinuance can also be quite high. Effecting a substantial reduction in programs takes a heavy toll on the time, energies, and emotional reserves of an institution's administrative personnel. It is a difficult task to develop and implement strategies for program discontinuance and to convince key constituent groups that closing programs is the right course of action. Substantial effort is also required to maintain the support of those who favor discontinuance while battling those opposed to it and intent on doing everything in their power to swing votes to their side.

At times the heat of battle over program discontinuance can become so intense that the objectivity and rationality traditionally characteristic of academicians quickly gives way to emotionally-charged and irrational behavior. In the extreme situation, both sides secure legal counsel, there are marches and demonstrations on the administration building; bad press fills the media; facts and figures are slanted and distorted to incite the opposition, and character assassination and mud-slinging become the order of the day.

To be sure, most efforts to discontinue academic programs do not involve such nightmares. Some can be characterized as quite tame and orderly. The context and manner in which program discontinuance is conducted often determines its level of difficulty as well as its ultimate success or failure. Nevertheless, the approach-avoidance reaction that many of us have toward the pursuit of program discontinuance is understandable in view of the risks that must be taken and the time and energies necessary to make it successful.

Although legislators and board members may believe that the basic solution to financial distress in colleges and universities is to identify weak academic programs and close them down, it is just not that simple. Program discontinuance is a realistic and practical option only in certain situations. To be accomplished with a minimum of resistance and negative fallout, it requires careful planning and support within the institutional environment.

For many of us, the decision to engage in genuine program discontinuance is somewhat analagous to the situation that an inventive farmer once faced when he began experimenting with his chickens. The farmer wanted to find a way to get his chickens to lay golden eggs, but after several disastrous attempts, he began to wonder whether producing a golden egg was really worth all the wear and tear on his hens. As we look at that dilemma today and its parallels to the question of program discontinance, three variables are particularly significant: 1. the size of the golden egg that might be produced; 2. the value of gold on the world market; and last, but certainly not least, 3. the intestinal fortitude of us chickens.

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FACULTY DEVELOPMENT: A ROLE FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

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Introduction

I am very happy to have the opportunity to be with you this morning. A part of my pleasure is occasioned by my habitual and somewhat perverse delight in dispelling stereotypes. The stereotypes which we encounter all too frequently in our respective professional pursuits place us at seemingly opposite ends of the spectrum. Institutional researchers are sometimes perceived by the unenlightened of academe, particularly those in departments with declining enrollments, as mechanistic and even heartless numbers-crunchers. Professional developers, on the other hand, are often portrayed as fuzzy-minded fugitives from scholarly research whose penchant for "touchy-feely" sessions and instructional gimmicks has wreaked havoc with academic standards. Hard versus soft. The only thing we seem to share is our capacity to threaten and infuriate those who perceive both our enterprises to be illegitimate, presumptuous intrusions into academic life.

Beneath this superficial disparity, however, lies a common cause. We share a commitment to providing *perspective* on the academic enterprise itself. Our shared purpose and indeed our methodologies, rather than being inimical to that enterprise (as often suspected), are fundamentally indigenous to the process of critical reflection and analysis, the very heart of the academic enterprise.

The origin of this particular session, as many of you know better than I, was Marvin Peterson's identification in his keynote address to this body last year of "faculty and staff vitality" as one of the major problems which institutional researchers must address in the 1980's. His premise was that, as financial resources become more and more restricted, the vitality of faculty and staff will be a crucial factor in determining any institutution's prospects for future success. As this fact has become more and more apparent, many institutions have established formal and sometimes elaborate programs for "faculty development" designed to vouchsafe that vitality.

These faculty development programs are intended to provide a frame-work for reflection, assessment, and action that will bring individuals and institutions to a better understanding of themselves--of their roles, their tasks, and their purpose in the "brave new world" of higher education in the 1980's.

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Defining "Faculty Development"

"Faculty development" has been defined as "an institutional process which seeks to modify the attitudes, skills, and behavior of faculty members toward greater competence and effectiveness in meeting student needs, their own needs, and the needs of the institution" (Francis).

"Faculty development" emerged as a significant and often controversial phrase in the vernacular of higher education during the 1970's. It designated one of the most influential movements of that turbulent decade which saw higher education desperately trying to respond to the cataclysmic events of the late 1960's and early 1970's. Celebrated by many as a humanistic and value-oriented approach to "accountability" that restored teaching and learning as the appropriate focus of the academic enterprise, faculty development was likewise excoriated by others as a gimmick-ridden, frivolous fad which threatened academic standards and offended academic professionals with its presumptuousness.

Much of the rancor surrounding the faculty development "movement" has subsided as has much of the evangelistic fervor. What has endured is the sobering realization, as Mr. Peterson indicated, that academic quality and intellectual vitality must be carefully planned and consciously nurtured both by individual faculty and their institutions in our very uncertain future.

As "faculty development" programs have matured, it has become clear that successful approaches must be *comprehensive*, not piecemeal or peripheral. They must clearly reflect an institution's responsibility for and commitment to helping faculty understand and respond constructively to the new expectations and demands that change, uncertainty and tomorrow's students will require of them.

A comprehensive development program must include both *traditional* and more *innovative* programs. Typically *traditional* faculty development programs have been sabbatical leaves, released time for research, and funded travel to professional meetings. For many faculty, particularly those in the humanities, these programs represent the extent of "legitimate" faculty development activities. Programs that do not incorporate such traditional opportunities have limited credibility with these faculty.

Equally important to a balanced, comprehensive development program is the support and encouragement of *innovative* programs offering alternative approaches to instruction and other academic tasks. Various mediated or systems approaches to instruction are examples of innovative programs, as are seminars encouraging faculty and self-analysis about professional values, attitudes, and practices.

Ideally, a comprehensive development program is sufficiently flexible and coordinated to mesh traditional and innovative programs, skillfully blending them to achieve both institutional and individual faculty goals. For example, a sabbatical leave can be used by a faculty member to develop a computer-based, personalized approach to his courses.

Comprehensive development programs generally have three foci--person, process, and environment. More specifically, this tripartite structure includes the following: 1. *Instruction*, the improvement of the teaching-learning process, 2. *The Individual*, the professional and personal growth of individual faculty members, 3. *The Institution*, the general revitalization or renewal of the organizational environments to support faculty and their teaching. This structure recognizes that "significant changes must take place at the three levels of attitude, process, and structure" (Francis). Efforts at change focusing on only one of these levels rarely achieve any durable success.

Research and Data Needs for Faculty Development

For the remainder of my paper I should like to explore with you in greater depth some of the needs each of these areas of faculty development will have for data and analytical research.

Instructional Development. Instructional Development refers to "the systematic and continuous application of learning principles and educational technology to develop the most effective and efficient learning experiences for students" (Gaff). The focus is improvement of learning for students.

Data and research on students and the teaching/learning process will be in greater demand than in the past because both are expected to change significantly in the next two decades. The litany about the changing characteristics of students is familiar to us all: more part-time students, the so-called non-traditional students and their alleged "special needs," students who at the same time are more technologically sophisticated and functionally illiterate than ever before. What is not so familiar to us is information describing these changing characteristics or interpretations of their potential impact on various areas of an institution. Facts and analysis are running way behind paranoia and conjecture in this area. We need to know facts about *attrition* and *retention*. What are the values, attitudes, and expectations of current students? What are their academic skills? We need to keep an especially close eye on each entering freshman class in terms of both size and the more qualitative characteristics of attitudes, values, and academic skills. At Ball State University we are

fortunate to have an Office of Student Affairs Research which has produced several attitudinal studies helpful in describing those we seek to instruct--for example, a study of student expectations of a college education, an analysis of factors related to career decisions, and a course evaluation focusing on student perception of course "difficulty."

Data on faculty themselves are also useful for instructional development. At Ball State University our Office of Instructional Development has produced a computerized inventory of faculty skills and special interests in teaching and learning. This "Instructional Human Resources File" is designed to help individual faculty members with similar interests and skills communicate in ways that might otherwise be impossible in a university of forty-nine academic departments and over eight hundred full-time regular faculty.

Data from faculty/course evaluations will continue to be important as institutions try to establish appropriate structures and criteria for measuring teacher effectiveness.

What incentives and rewards an institution actually provides for teaching also needs careful study. Further, one of the popular complaints among faculty is that institutional goals and mission statements emphasize the importance of good teaching, a fact often reinforced through heavy teaching loads. But when promotions or merit salary increases are dispensed, it is the researchers and not the teachers who reap the rewards. Whether this is fact or myth, it needs study and analysis. If perchance it is fact, how much of the situation is due to researchers' ability to provide hard data documenting their performance while teachers are still debating an acceptable definition of good teaching? Data and research on teaching and especially on learning are critical if this issue is ever to be resolved.

The curriculum and individual courses also need more in-depth study. Evaluation of frequency of course offerings, of the relevance and quality of programs, of what I call an "addition/deletion" ratio are going to have greater urgency. The last of these--the relation of program deletions to new programs--is of increasing concern to state agencies and funding sources.

What is actually happening in the teaching/learning process itself and the effectiveness of services and resources that support teaching (e.g. media, tests and measurements, instructional computing) needs empirical study and careful analysis. Do large classes really have a negative effect on student learning? Are there differential discipline-based patterns in grade inflation? Do technological and systemic approaches (e.g. CAI, PSI) really improve student learning?

These issues may be among the most important of those requiring the support and expertise of institutional research. The stakes are high. If these innovations and

services will give an institution a competitive edge in the war for student enrollments, not to have them is suicidal. But the cost of educational technology is exorbitant, and its contributions to learning or productivity not yet convincingly demonstrated. The dilemma for decision-makers is real, and the time-frame for effective planning, given market pressures, is very tight indeed. We need your help.

Individual (Faculty) Development. The emphasis here is on those activities and opportunities that enhance the professional and personal growth of faculty members themselves. Research and data needs here again focus on attitudes, values, and expectations.

The potential for professional and personal stagnation or even atrophy among persons of a highly creative bent who may be forced to do the same thing in the same place for the next quarter of a century is frightening. The decline in self-esteem that is bound to attend the enrollment and financial patterns projected for that period further exacerbates the problem. Dispelling myths and establishing factual and realistic profiles of faculty and their cultures will be critical. The Ladd-Lipset surveys published in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* are excellent examples of the work needed in this area.

One particularly important issue here is faculty work load. Public understanding of the occupational stress and strain endured by professionals teaching from six to twelve hours a week is tentative at best. A continuous faculty complaint, however, is too heavy a workload to allow for research or scholarship. What faculty *actually* do, what they say they *want* to do, and what institutions or state legislatures are willing to *pay* them to do all need careful analysis. Empirical data and analyses in this area will be of the highest priority for institutions concerned with faculty vitality.

Two concepts have emerged to help focus research and reflection about faculty. One is *adult development* and the other is *faculty culture.* Both are receiving increased attention in the literature of higher education and need to be enriched by practical, applied research. Understanding the psychological development of faculty at various career and life stages, what motivates them at different times, and what aspects of their environment are most influential are extremely important to the success and health of institutions as well as individuals.

Institutional (Organizational) Development. While individual or faculty development focuses on the teacher and instructional development on the teaching-learning process, institutional or organizational development is concerned with the culture in which these other two interact. Personnel policies and reward systems, governance

structures, planning and budgeting processes are all important components of this supporting environment. The basic data elements and files needed for research here are rather typical and should be familiar territory for institutional researchers.

How such traditional data are presented and interpreted, however, has significant implications for faculty development programs. Our institutional planning process at Ball State University has developed specific formats for showing present personnel resources and commitments and projecting personnel needs into the future. Tenure and retirement projections are crucial factors in program flexibility that provide significant indications of a department's ability to free up personnel resources for developmental activities.

Productivity indices are also being used more and more in long-range planning and budgeting. Student credit hours and a host of related ratios are used increasingly in institutional and state funding assumptions. Institutional researchers obviously play a key role in such processes. Their familiarity with and sensitivity to developmental concerns can be an important influence in the planning and budgeting context.

The Role of Institutional Research in Faculty Development

Herein lies one of the major contributions institutional research can make to faculty development. Development programs and values must have the support and stand the scrutiny of empirical data and analytical research to make their fullest contribution to higher education. Moreover, research must test hypotheses and values identified nationally with the local institutional situation.

The need for and precise nature of data and research will vary from campus to campus. So also will the roles and *modus operandi* for institutional researchers. My summary observations about roles must therefore be interpreted and adapted as appropriate.

Institutional research can assist faculty development programs with at least four generic kinds of analytical research: 1. *Needs Assessments.* Various constituencies--students, faculty, and administration--require empirical verification of their needs and desires. Specifically, time-honored assumptions about what students and faculty want or need should be carefully scrutinized. Myths must be replaced by facts. 2. *Attitudes/Values.* Similarly, studies of the attitudes and values of students, faculty, and administration as well as of the public need fuller examination. A particular focus in such studies should be *expectations*. The discontinuity between expectations and reality on matters ranging from course content to resource allocation will undoubtedly be a major source of frustration and consternation throughout the 1980's. 3. *Functional Analyses.* We need to know much more about what faculty,

administrative staff, and students are actually doing and why. For example, how much faculty participation actually takes place in academic planning or in course/curriculum development? Is the registration process unnecessarily complicated for students? 4. *Congruence Testing.* Studies of attitudes and values, as well as of actual functions, allow an assessment of the congruence between stated values and reality. Are faculty actually spending the time in accordance with stated values? Do the institution's resource allocation patterns reflect its stated goals? Are incentive programs consistent with faculty values?

Implementing such research studies related to faculty development may provide something of a challenge to institutional researchers, who will perhaps be broadening the scope of their research into relatively uncharted or at least uncomfortable waters. Attitudinal surveys or interviews are not everybody's cup of tea. Likewise chi-squares and regression analyses may be of limited value in understanding the characteristics of non-traditional students. Some data and expertise necessary for some of these analyses may need to come from areas of the institution not generally perceived as a part of institutional research. Cooperative team-work is of the essence. The expertise of institutional researchers, for example, is imperative for the construction of valid questionnaires and interview instruments and for the interpretation of results. Faculty development professionals have the skills to conduct the interviews.

In conclusion, I would like to return to our common cause: what we might call "demythologizing the academy." The cooperative interaction of institutional research and faculty development should be synergistic; i.e., it should produce an effect greater than the sum of the independent parts. This synergism should provide our institutions with a perspective on the present and the future undergirded by both humanistic values and analytic integrity.

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PLANNING: WHAT TO DO UNTIL THE PRESIDENT ARRIVES

Panelists

Donald J. Reichard	University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Fred Wise	Old Dominion University
E. Michael Staman	University of Missouri

Donald J. Reichard

The theme of the session is intriguing to me because the topic, "Planning: What to Do Until the President Arrives," was posed hypothetically. In our own instance, however, at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNC-G), three main factors have transformed the hypothetical panel session into a real-life situation. First and foremost is the arrival of our new Chancellor in August 1979. His degree background includes a MBA from Harvard University and Ph.D. in Business Administration from the University of Michigan, with additional work at the Center for the Study of Higher Education. By way of contrast, the previous Chancellor had served for fourteen years and was an historian. As one might imagine from the differences in disciplinary backgrounds, substantial changes have taken place in orientations and receptivity to systematic planning processes at the very highest level.

The second development that made the hypothetical situation seem more real was the Chancellor's creation of a new Vice Chancellor's position. Whereas the Office of Institutional Research and the Administrative Computer Center had previously reported to a Vice Chancellor for Administration, under the new reorganization these two offices reported to a Vice Chancellor for Administration *and Planning*. Thus, planning was officially recognized as a future priority via the designation of a position with planning responsibilities at the Vice Chancellor level.

The third development is the fact that we are now into a two-and-one-half-year formal planning process initiated by the Chancellor. (This planning process may or may not meet your own definition of planning.) An extensive array of activities began this summer with the development of a "plan for planning" which should culminate two-and-one-half years from now with a visitation by the Southern Association accrediting team and its approval of a non-traditional self-study growing out of the planning process.

As you can imagine, this planning process will include many people in the institution. At this point a thirty-five member Planning Council and eight individual task groups, each with eight to twenty-one persons, have been created. Some ninety faculty, fourteen students, fifteen alumni, and eleven trustees will be intensely involved. It should come as no surprise that the Office of Institutional Research will be called upon to serve as a principal resource agent in support of the planning process.

With the above as background, one can guess that we did not have to devise strategies to increase the new Chancellor's interest in institutional research and planning. Instead, our primary need is to arrive at some understanding of what planning is and how it relates to institutional research. Our second most important need is to assess where we are with regard to the development of planning capabilities. Finally, if enhanced planning capabilities are a desired end, we need to assess the understandings, working relationships, and resources necessary for progress in this regard.

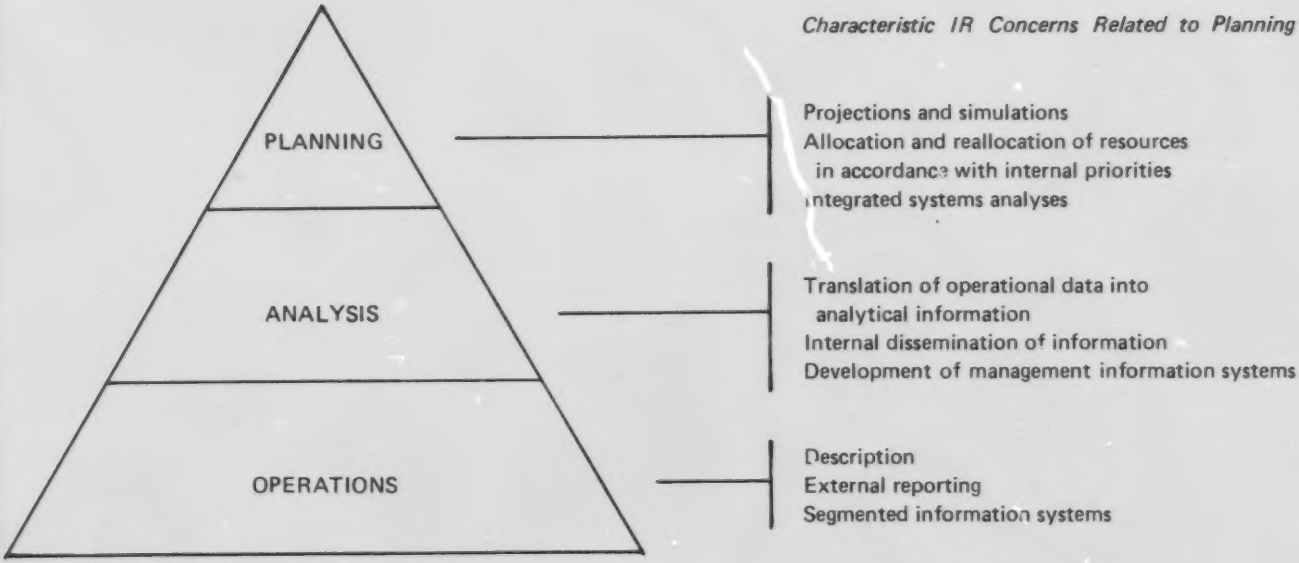
I doubt that I can directly answer the question, "what is planning?" Its definition is as difficult to pinpoint as the meaning of "quality," which we discussed in yesterday's session. I suspect that one man's ouiji board is another man's planning tool, and that we can really only talk about planning in terms of institutional specifics. So I can only walk around the topic of "what is planning?" and suggest (as often indicated in institutional research) that it may be whatever planners do. That will beg the question. If we ever reached the stage where we really were involved in planning, I wonder whether I would even recognize it. If we talk about planning in the way that we talk about quality, I get the feeling that I could smell it, taste it, and cut it with a knife, but I still don't know where I could get it for $1.25 less per pound. Somehow or other we may not know what planning is, but we take it on faith that when we get there it will be great. I suggest that the anticipated outcomes and the reality may be quite different.

In the interest of time, I would offer the definition of planning used by the Academy for Educational Development (AED) as one worthy of consideration. In this regard, AED notes that "Planning is defined as that part of the management process which attempts to predetermine the best course of action. The planning process is characterized by a systematic consideration of goals and objectives, identification of programs, calculation and allocation of resources, identification of priorities and alternatives and program evaluation."

When we saw planning "coming down the road," we first attempted to devise a very simplistic means of suggesting the kinds of institutional research activities that might lead toward planning. An essential first step, in terms of initiating those who have never been involved in planning, is the development of a planning paradigm which can be conveyed to others. Figure 1 attempts to characterize the various types of activities and related concerns in building a planning capability. The paradigm suggests that planning is "at the top of the pyramid" and that comprehensive planning can be achieved only after the information systems and ad hoc study capabilities so crucial to institutional research have been fully developed at the operational and analytical levels in all areas of university activity.

Figure 1

"PLANNING IS AT THE TOP OF THE PYRAMID"



"Planning is defined as that part of the management process which attempts to predetermine a best course of action. The planning process is characterized by a systematic consideration of goals and objectives, identification of programs, calculations and allocation of resources, identification of priorities and alternatives, and program evaluation." Academy for Educational Development

Are we doing planning? Various roles played by institutional research offices may facilitate the climb to the top of the pyramid. We have said for the last few years that the Office of Institutional Research should perform several primary roles on campus: 1. central institutional data source, 2. developer of data bases for analytic and evaluative purposes, 3. initiator and coordinator for encouragement of special studies, 4. general resource agent; and 5. utilizer of institutional data for planning purposes. The roles may be sequential as one moves higher on the pyramid. If indeed planning is "at the top of the pyramid," an essential task in anticipating the arrival of a new chancellor is assessing one's position on the pyramid. I would think that we are currently somewhere between the level of operations and analysis in most areas.

The next question seems to involve what is necessary to move higher up on the pyramid. In this regard, I can only indicate that in our own institution at this point we are really at a plateau. At least four significant developments will have to take place before we can develop more comprehensive planning capabilities. For one thing (and again this is very institutionally specific), most of the studies developed in our own office have tended to focus upon the student-curricular area, where the data base has been more fully developed and we have the most ready access. Our fiscal data are in fairly poor shape at this point. However, we now have a new Vice Chancellor for Business Affairs and will soon have a new Director of Accounting. It is apparent from the Chancellor's perspective that the greatest need is to develop the financial data base. I wonder, however, whether our institution can really move up on the "planning pyramid" if the fiscal data cannot be developed fully and integrated with data from the student-curricular, faculty, and facility areas.

Second, to climb to a higher plateau on the pyramid we must address the question of computing resources. We have a fairly small administrative computer with no statistical package capability for research purposes and data files too large to be fully integrated given existing main-frame limitations. We pay real dollars analyzing our data as an "outside user" on a university-owned computer whose policies are administered by the Office of Academic Affairs. We need to come to grips with what computer resources, working relationships, and configurations are necessary to support planning from a university-wide perspective. For the moment, the "apple of our eye" which might lift us to a higher computing plateau is the Apple III microcomputer.

A third area for improvement is integrated management information systems and software development. Until we are able to integrate the student-curricular, faculty, fiscal, and facility data bases, we are not likely to move very rapidly toward the top

of the pyramid.

The fourth and final element essential to advancing on the pyramid is the development of some new understandings in our institution regarding the comprehensive internal service role of an Office of Institutional Research. We have operated within the framework of a strong governing board. In my cynical moments, I am inclined to think that the institution has believed in predestination and that institutional research has been viewed by some as primarily concerned with answering externally generated questions. A corollary of this assumption (still held in many institutions) is that institutional research serves a reporting function and must answer someone else's questions. In institutions where this belief lingers, individual offices have tended to see as legitimate only those requests for information which have some external force behind them. Fading is the attitude that data are the exclusive property of the office that maintains the operational file. However, if we are to advance on the planning pyramid, we need to have automatic unrestricted access to data in all areas of university operations. More important, we need to develop some understanding of desirable, internally generated outcomes which may be enhanced by the current planning process, as well as an acceptance that internally generated questions should enjoy some real priority in influencing a future of our own choosing.

What do we do until the president arrives? The president has arrived. What we are attempting to do is assess and reassess the organization's capabilities and receptivity to planning and institutional research. We are pursuing the building of requisite understandings by attempting to increase information flow. We have been involved in producing our first Fact Book, which of course will enter heavily into the planning process and various activities of the task groups over the duration of the planning process. We are acquainting people with our institutional research activities through widespread dissemination of our office's annual reports. We are developing a group of liaison representatives familiar with the office's activities. In order to orient our new Vice Chancellor, we are performing functional analyses of the ways we spend our time in institutional research. Most important, we acknowledge that we are not doing planning at this point and explain why, in the hope that we can create the understandings to move forward.

While the arrival of a new Chancellor and Vice Chancellors oriented toward planning considerations augurs well for long-term developments in this area, there are also some concerns that the prolonged period of intensive self-study may yield a period of overturning rocks and of self-discovery that will inhibit the evolutionary development of our office. Our general approach for the moment is to follow a developmental plan for our Office of Institutional Research which we have had in

mind for several years, under the premise that a relationship exists between institutional research and planning and that planning capabilities will mature as the capabilities of the Office of Institutional Research are enhanced. It remains to be seen whether institutional research and planning can in fact evolve so that these two functions are complementary. As for what else we should be doing about planning until the president arrives, I would hope that in another year hindsight will have given us all a much clearer perspective.

*Fred Wise**

Should we as institutional researchers do anything until the president is ready to launch a formal planning process? There is little, if any, evidence to suggest that the college or university which plans produces better graduates or more research than the one which does not plan. Why should any college or university put scarce resources into developing a detailed plan, especially in these financially difficult times? Would it not be better to ask the entire planning staff and the institutional researchers to return to teaching and thus lower the overhead cost of operating the institution? A number of studies have shown that the cost of administration has grown much faster than other costs.

Planning implies change, and change is almost without exception threatening to the status quo. People in higher education or any other enterprise can be expected to react negatively to change, especially to planned change. When threatened with change, people will cling to the status quo. As a result, the process of change all too often becomes simply an expansion of the status quo. The predictable outcome of a standard planning process is a call for more of something: more teachers, more free time to conduct research, more staff support, and so forth. Why do we continue to press for planning when we have so much difficulty pointing to any substantial, specific gains as a result of planning?

Probably deep down inside we feel planning is somehow good. Further, if we do not plan, we subject ourselves to the scorn of those who would raise the cry: "no wonder this place is such a mess; nobody around here does any planning." The only thing we know for sure is that the institution which plans will produce one or more volumes to set on the corner of the president's desk for pointing to when important visitors ask whether the institution has a plan.

Assuming that the institution cannot resist the pressures to plan, then who should do the planning? Offices of institutional research are tending to become offices of planning and analysis or offices of institutional research and planning. Many consider this development logical in that IR offices provide much of the data essential for planning. Further, offices of institutional research are often located in the

*Mr. Wise's paper was read by Peggy Moore, Old Dominion University.

organizational structure to facilitate coordination of a planning process; they generally report to a senior executive and frequently to the chief executive himself. But, we must be careful not to fall into the trap of being assigned to *do* the planning.

Planning is decision-making. It involves making commitments which will affect the organization in the future. It is not forecasting, although forecasts are used in the process. Planning is a response to three deceptively simple questions: where are we now? where do we want to be in the future? what shall we do to get there? Answers to these three questions would provide most institutions with a very complete plan.

The answers require decision-making by people with authority over the resources required to implement the plans. They cannot be answered by institutional researchers or by people with titles such as Institutional Planners. The only people who can plan in a college or university are the department chairmen, deans, vice-presidents, president, or whoever has authority to allocate the resources. The institutional planner can help by drafting proposals, gathering data, arranging meetings and so on, but he cannot plan. Planning is a function of management and cannot be delegated, even to a planning committee. It is a major responsibility of administrators at all levels.

With all these cautions and limitations, what can the institutional researcher do until the president is ready to participate in and sponsor a formal planning process? I think there are a number of possibilities. One is the generation of a very complete profile of the institution's current position. Such a profile could include the following: an analysis of current enrollment in terms of student types, age, sex, average SAT, distribution among programs and so forth; an analysis of the financial position of the institution, sources of funds, current allocation of funds, number of fulltime faculty, number of support staff, percentage of tenured faculty, utilization of part-time faculty, etc; facilities, space utilization and inventory; curriculum, courses and discipline offerings, utilization rate, programs and current enrollment. We are talking about a comprehensive profile covering all aspects of the university. This should include evaluation of the position of the institution in the local community and in the higher education community as a whole.

Some authors strongly disapprove of this approach. They say concentration on the current profile may lead to a conclusion that the general health of the institution is good and should not be disturbed. However, we all agree that change will occur and should therefore be planned. Hence, the initial concentration should be on the university's position in the future. Institutional researchers, however, must be careful here. They are quite capable of suggesting hypothetical futures for the institution but should not be expected to decide those futures.

In summary, is planning worth it?--Frankly, we do not know. Conventional wisdom says that planning is good for the institution, but it does not say how much planning is needed or what the benefits will be. The role of the institutional researcher, in light of conventional wisdom, is to stimulate and develop an environment to facilitate planning. In this activity, it is well to remember that an important but

frequently overlooked part of planning is its educational function.

Finally, before you start to build the environment, remember the words of Peter Drucker: "Eventually planning must degenerate into work."

*E. Michael Staman**

The message contained in the title of this panel session is that planning in the absence of the open and visible support of the chief executive officer of an institution is probably not an extremely meaningful exercise. The title implies at least two problems: one, that a planning system be designed and implemented in an institution of higher education; two, what an office of institutional research can do, in the absence of a formal planning process, to facilitate a college or university's efforts to think about its future directions.

The literature on planning varies extensively in both content and quality. Topics include single institution case studies, theoretical approaches, philosophical approaches, paradigms, and paradigms backed up with case studies and principles. One could select several of the better efforts (those which present some well-defined paradigms and include some basic principles of planning) and attempt to design a planning process at one's own institution based on some appropriate model selected from the literature. Virtually no model will be directly applicable, because all institutions seem to be unique in their organizational, social, and political structure. A list of articles which might be appropriate follows these remarks.

Several questions ought to be considered in the preparation of a planning process: 1. Should the process be centralized or decentralized? How much participation is enough? Should the democratic process prevail or does the style of management at the institution make a more autocratic process appropriate? 2. How shall the output of the planning process be linked to the resource-allocation process? About the only certainty in planning is that omission of this critical link will result in failure of the process. 3. Should the process be cyclical? How often should the plans be updated (i.e., how long should the cycle be)? 4. What is the approval mechanism for the results of the planning process? How does one guarantee administrative allegiance to the plan and to the process of planning? The absence of such allegiance is one factor requently cited when planning processes fail. 5. What information is needed in the planning process? How much data? What kind of data?

There are other questions. Simply put, the researcher should ask *how* and *whether* each of the principles of planning inherent in the selected model will be implemented at the target institution.

*Mr. Staman's paper was read by Charles D. Salley, Queen's College.

In the absence of a formal planning process or in the absence of even the potential for implementing a planning process, what can a researcher do? Planning is, in fact, a form of communication. One of the purposes of a planning process is to provide the community of scholars and administrators with a sense of coherence and direction. In the final analysis, planning is somehow being accomplished--if not in the confines of a formal process, then in the hallways, in the parking lot, or at parties. Wherever the process is being carried out, it clearly will be more rational and coherent if the participants have a common base of information. The role that the institutional researcher plays in this process is clear; the problem lies in understanding what information is needed to support the planning decisions and how that information should be presented. Those administrators attuned to detail have little use for graphs and charts which aggregate the detail out of the data, those unable to cope with "too many numbers" have little use for pages and pages of matrix-oriented data. It is the tools and techniques of the profession, methods outlined in the institutional research documents cited at the end of this paper, that permit institutional research to be of use.

What to do until the president arrives? If the problem is the design of a planning process, then one should select a model and design a process appropriate for the institution in question. If instead one is charged with the responsibility of supporting the informational needs of an institution, then one should select a model for presenting that information which will stand the test of time (that is, a model which can be used to provide consistent comparable data over the years) and get on with the task.

To help identify and define the institutional research and planning task, I would recommend the following sources:

Some Literature on Planning

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Hussey, D. E. and M. J. Langham. *Corporate Planning: The Human Factor*. Pergamon Press, 1979.

Kieft, Raymond N. *Academic Planning: Four Institutional Case Studies*. Boulder, Colorado, National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, 1978.

Ohio Board of Regents. *Planning--Universities*. Columbus, Ohio, Ohio Board of Regents, 1974.

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Dressel, P. *Handbook on Academic Evaluation*. Jossey-Bass, 1976.

Jedamus, P., M. Peterson, et al. *Improving Academic Management*. Jossey-Bass, 1976.

Lawrence, B. and A. Service. *Quantitative Approaches to Higher Education Management*. ERIC Research Report No. 4, American Council for Higher Education, 1977.

Any of the proceedings of the Annual Forums of the Association for Institutional Research, published by Jossey-Bass.

Any of the Proceedings of the Annual Conferences of the Southern Association for Institutional Research, published by SAIR.

METHODOLOGIES FOR PROJECTING ENROLLMENT AND QUARTER CREDIT HOURS ON A SYSTEMWIDE BASIS

Carol M. Miller University System of Georgia

Abstract

As retrenchment becomes policy rather than theory, college and university administrators have begun to demand greater accuracy in headcount and quarter credit hour (QCH) projections from institutional researchers. This paper presents methodologies for such projections which, while developed for use on a statewide basis, are applicable at the institutional level as well.

Recent studies have shown that there is an inverse relationship between unemployment and enrollment, with usually a one-quarter lag in enrollment reaction to the unemployment rate. The headcount projection methodology to be presented utilizes the multiple correlation and multiple regression models but, unlike the typical models, includes the unemployment rate as a predictor variable. Six variables are analyzed in stepwise regression for two different time periods. The resulting correlation coefficients are then used in the standard predictive equation to project fall headcount for a five-year period.

Like many systems, the University System of Georgia is funded by the state legislature based on the total number of QCH anticipated for the next fiscal year. The QCH methodologies to be presented utilized three basic models. Two are trend analysis-based models using average change in QCH from quarter to quarter and from year to year by lower, upper, and graduate/professional division. A third model is based on the ratio of projected headcount to average QCH taken per student per division.

At a time when inflation and enrollment declines erode higher education's fiscal resources, accurate projections are increasingly important. Each of the models presented should be of real value in improving projection techniques.

THE USE OF HOLISTIC GRADING IN ASSESSING WRITING COMPETENCY

Maryann S. Ruddock St. Edwards University

Abstract

Holistic grading is a method for assessing writing competency that is valid as well as time-saving. As opposed to atomistic grading, which assesses particular features associated with discoursing, holistic grading takes into account each essay's ideas and originality; organization; development; syntax, fluency, style; and control of the conventions of written English in assigning one numerical score to each essay. Each essay is read at least twice and, if the scores do not differ by more than one point (on a two-through-eight scale), the score assigned is the average of the two scores given. If the scores do differ by more than one point, the essay goes to a Chief Reader for determination of the final score.

This type of scoring has the following advantages: 1. papers are graded as a "whole" instead of as separate tests of spelling, organization, development, etc.; 2. it precludes the flaws inherent in objective tests (like having the answers to the test beforehand); 3. essays are anonymous (only student ID numbers appear on the test), faculty do not grade their own class's papers (when the essays are given at the end of the semester), and scores assigned are withheld from succeeding readers--all to ensure impartiality; 4. students are graded in relationship to others in their class, not in relationship to "standard" writing examples--a method which allows for comparisons within the group; 5. large numbers of essays can be read and scored in a short period of time; 6. by keeping track of each reader's scores, reader consistency may be monitored during the scoring; 7. scorers do not have to be English teachers.

This method of assessment enables the institutional research office to answer the following questions: 1. How can writing competency be meaningfully assessed? 2. What is the ability range of the freshman class? 3. How do different subgroups compare to one another (foreign, black, Spanish-surnamed, special admittance, etc.)? 4. Using the holistic grading method on essays at the end of the semester, what progress have these students made? 5. Based on entering ability level, is writing competency related to persistence?

ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION OF ENTERING FRESHMAN MATHEMATIC STUDENTS USING MULTIPLE DISCRIMINATE FUNCTION ANALYSIS

Steve Ahrens West Virginia University

Abstract

During the summer of 1977 the mathematics department of West Virginia University determined that the current method of placing entering freshmen into mathematical courses was inadequate and due more to happenstance than to any valid methodology. As a result, this study was undertaken in conjunction with the Office of Institutional Research to determine whether a set of predictor variables could be used effectively to place entering freshman mathematic students into courses of instruction in mathematics. Multiple discriminate analysis was used on nearly six thousand different student records collected over a three-year period. A series of prediction equations was generated and later cross-validated. This study is on-going, and further enhancements are anticipated. However, the prediction equations that were developed appear to discriminate among the groups effectively. The two predictor variables accounting for the best discriminating effect were high school background and the grade on a departmentally conceived examination.

A STUDY OF PREDICTORS OF ACADEMIC SUCCESS AT UT-MARTIN

Douglas I. Blom University of Tennessee at Martin
Robert H. Paynter University of Tennessee at Martin
Daniel E. Brasher University of Tennessee at Martin

Abstract

The University of Tennessee at Martin, like other institutions, is attempting to identify variables which could be used as predictors of academic success. After reviewing previously published research which appeared equivocal and inconclusive, a study was initiated at UTM. This paper covers Phase One of the study. The purposes of the study were to validate admissions criteria, determine precision of high school GPA and ACT scores as predictors, check the predictive validity of the ACT sub-test scores, and study the academic success of males and females for significant differences. The GPA at the end of the first quarter of college for fall quarters of 1977, 1978, and 1979 was used as the dependent variable in a series of regression equations. Various combinations of HSGPA, ACT composite, and ACT sub-test scores were used as the independent variables. A total of twenty-one regression equations for the three years were developed. Each equation was analyzed to determine its potential usefulness. The F-test indicated each equation was significant at the a=.001 level; the t-test indicated each regresssion coefficient was significant; the coefficient of determination (r^2) ranged from .408 to .555; and the standard error range was from .647 to .697.

ATTRITION AND RETENTION

Daniel E. Brasher — University of Tennessee at Martin
John A. Jones — University of Tennessee at Martin
Douglas I. Blom — University of Tennessee at Martin

Abstract

Because of resource restrictions and a decreasing population of 18-21 year olds, colleges and universities are vitally interested in retaining students who might not persist. A study was initiated to determine whether persisting students exhibited common characteristics and to describe trends in attrition. The beginning freshmen for the fall quarters of 1977, 1978, and 1979 were selected for analysis. Initially, results were cross-tabulated by sex and ethnic group. A simple algorithm and associated computer program are presented.

Overall, the results appear to be consistent for each of the freshman classes: 37% of the beginning classes do not return the following year, and approximately 50% remain after two years. There appear to be no significant differences in retentions across ethnic groups. Some differences in retention of males and females were discovered.

ACTIVE STUDENT PARTICIPATION FOR IDENTIFYING ATTRITION CAUSES AND SOLUTIONS

Michael McCord — West Georgia College
Janice Gamache — West Georgia College

Abstract

Smaller institutions may not be able to allocate the resources for conducting a large-scale survey of non-persisting students. In an effort to ascertain causes and potential solutions of the 40% attrition at a small college, a method was devised which built upon the strength of many smaller colleges--their comfortable, personable atmosphere. Over 300 students in primarily second- and third-quarter freshman classes participated in an exercise to identify what they individually perceived as the major reasons causing students to leave the college during their freshman year. The data generated during the exercise consisted of a rank ordering of four problems and their potential solutions. Rankings were analyzed by the categories most frequently mentioned and by their order of importance. Students felt the problems identified were very realistic and the suggested solutions solid and capable of being implemented. The main purpose for conducting the exercise was to obtain student input concerning problems attributing to attrition. The secondary accomplishment of student participation may have been as influential upon students as any action that could have been taken by the administration toward remedying the identified problems.

A COMPUTERIZED DATA BASE FOR STUDYING THE IMPACT OF STUDENT RETENTION OVER A FIVE-YEAR PERIOD

Michael McCord — West Georgia College
Robert McNabb — West Georgia College

Abstract

This paper discusses the construction, maintenance, and use of a comprehensive data base designed to provide administrators with retention rates of various classifications of students. Reports which have been generated upon request as a result of the data base creation include the following: a five-year retention history of freshman students; retention patterns of students in special programs; retention of freshman transfers versus other classifications of transfers; and achievement indicators of students remaining during the freshman year.

HELPING ADMISSIONS WITH PREDICTED GRADUATION EQUATIONS FOR FRESHMAN APPLICANTS

Timothy R. Sanford — University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

Abstract

This study used black and white students in the freshman class that entered The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in 1974 to explore the possibility of computing predicted graduation equations (PGE) for use by the Office of Undergraduate Admissions. Sex, race, residency, major, high school rank, high school size, SAT scores, and predicted grade-point average (PGA) were used as predictor variables in multiple regression and discriminant analyses. The percentage of variance explained (R^2) was 14.4% for blacks, 4.9% for whites, and 7.4% for blacks and whites. Discriminant analyses yielded correct predictions for 64.5% of the blacks, 57.65% of the whites, and 64.78% of both races. While the results are not impressive and do not appear to offer much help for admissions, they do tend to support the criteria generally being used by admissions officers in selecting and rejecting freshman applicants.

AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE CLASSICAL RETENTION STUDIES

Carol Kayla — West Virginia University
Peggy S. Yi — West Virginia University
Richard D. Howard — West Virginia University

Abstract

As the decline in traditional-age freshmen (18-22 year olds) continues, institutions of higher education are faced with declining enrollments or at best non-growth. To counter this situation, two types of strategies have been developed: increased recruitment of both traditional and non-traditional students, and increased retention of students. Dressel (1979), however, estimates the cost of recruiting to be between $500-$1,500 per student. Retention is felt to be far more cost-effective and to influence all levels of students, not just entering freshmen.

The initial step in developing a campus retention plan is to determine the institution's dropout rate and the reasons for student attrition (Noel, 1978). Classical retention studies require the ability to follow each student's academic progress to withdrawal or graduation. The Office of Institutional Research at West Virginia University had received requests for information from outside agencies and from various units within the University concerning retention information at the University. Because of inadequate computerized recordkeeping, a complete and continuing classical retention study could not have been accomplished; over 21,000 students would have had to be followed by hand each semester until graduation.The purpose of this study, therefore, was to provide the best possible current view of the dropout problem at West Virginia University. This was done by analysis of the students who were enrolled in classes during fall 1979 but did not return in spring 1980.

This paper documents an attempt to perform a quasi-retention study in the absence of data needed to do a classical retention study. By using demographic data available on WVU students and combining or comparing these data with more intensive research results obtained from published literature on retention, it is possible to provide administrators with information upon which to base better retention-plan programs. Institutions that do not have the necessary resources or the available data to do a classical retention study can obtain some idea of their dropout problem and locate potential problem areas by performing a quasi-retention study.

STUDENT DISPLACEMENT: A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE CLOSING OF AN URBAN INSTRUCTIONAL CENTER ON NON-TRADITIONAL COLLEGE ENROLLEES

W. Kevin Hunt — Tidewater Community College
Steven A. Gresty — Tidewater Community College

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of the closing of a large instructional center within a multi-campus institution. Specifically, the types of and the effects on the displaced students who had been enrolled at the center were examined in detail. Because of the high proportion of minority students, the institution was concerned about the educational progress of these former students.

Analysis of student historical data provided insight into the types of students who re-enrolled at the other campuses of the college during the next academic year. Essentially, minority students, especially black females, failed to return to the subject institution at a significant rate. To ascertain reasons why these students either transferred to another campus or failed to re-enroll, a questionnaire survey was conducted. In addition, for non-returnees, data were collected representing both educational and employment activities of these students since fall 1979. It appears from preliminary data analysis that many of the students who attended the center failed to continue their educational pursuits at either the subject institution or the neighboring four-year institutions.

THE MICROCOMPUTER: A NEW RESOURCE FOR THE INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCHER

R. Gregory Litaker — University of Louisville

Abstract

Recent advances in microelectronic design and manufacturing have created a very small and powerful new 'micro' computer. While this machine will not replace the large computers, for many tasks it is a useful and versatile new tool. Consideration is given to the limitations as well as the potential applications of microcomputers to the institutional research environment.

ASSESSING THE CONTINUING EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCHERS: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Donald J. Reichard University of North Carolina at Greensboro

Abstract

Given stabilized or declining enrollments, colleges and universities are faced with a decreasing number of hiring opportunities in the future. Rather than turning to new faculty and staff, institutions of higher education will need to devise means of assessing and meeting the professional development needs of existing staff if they are to develop a capacity for innovation and change. Thus, as noted by Peterson (1979), "[i]ssues of staff vitality and human assessment which are studied mainly in non-higher education settings are likely to gain increased emphasis."

The Association for Institutional Research (AIR) and other professional associations are also beginning to pay more attention to the continuing education needs of their members. At its April 1980 Executive Committee meeting, the Association called for the establishment of a new board charged with addressing various aspects of professional development for its members including "assessment of the continuing education needs and interests of institutional researchers."

An assessment of the perceived needs of the membership with regard to continuing education and professional development activities is seen as the first step in developing modular sets of professional education and/or workshop materials of interest to AIR/SAIR members. Accordingly, the purpose of this paper was to indicate some of the problems associated with developing an assessment of the continuing education/professional development needs of the AIR/SAIR members and to pilot test a draft copy of a survey which may be conducted in early 1981 with SAIR members in order to obtain their reactions. The opportunity to share views on mutually perceived professional development needs with SAIR members also served to assist AIR in formulating its program activities in this area.

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FACULTY RETENTION IN THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY

Henry Hector — State University System of Florida
Melodie Christal — State University System of Florida

Abstract:

The State University System (SUS) in Florida is interested in determining the retention rate for the faculty in the ranks of Full Professor, Associate Professor, and Assistant Professor. The retention rate is influenced by the present retirement policy, tenure policy, faculty mobility, student enrollment growth, and other minor factors. It is expected that the number of faculty who remain in SUS will increase for the following reasons: 1. Florida has no mandatory retirement age; 2. no change in the tenure policy is planned; 3. enrollments are dropping nationally and levelling off in the SUS. If the faculty retention rate increases, the universities will be unable to hire greater numbers of younger faculty, minorities, or women. As the average age of faculty rises, policies concerning faculty development will become more critical and average salary levels will probably become higher since older age is closely associated with higher salaries.

The first step of the study was to determine the present retention rate in the Florida SUS by the three major faculty ranks, age, and tenure status for the last three years. This was accomplished by the use of computer programs which matched a faculty member's employment from one year to the next by institution, age, rank and tenure status for the years 1976 to 1977, 1977 to 1978, and 1978 to 1979. Tables were prepared to display for the entire SUS the retention of faculty by tenure status from one year to the next, the age at which new faculty were hired or promoted by each rank, and the trend over the past three years. In addition, statistical tables indicating any shifts in age were presented. The final step was to project these changes statistically using historical data over the next ten to twenty years.

A number of policy issues and options discussed relate to a system with a high faculty retention rate: 1. early retirement; 2. equal opportunity; 3. increased salary costs; 4. faculty development. If the faculty retention rate is increasing, it is necessary to plan now in order to develop policies which will provide for an orderly transition in the future.

A MODEL FOR REALLOCATION OF DEPARTMENTAL FACULTY

Gerald W. McLaughlin — Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
James R. Montgomery — Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Abstract

One of the hardest, if not *the* hardest, problem an institution ever faces is the reallocation of faculty positions. Because of shifts in student interests and institutional focus, many institutions are faced with this problem. With financial resources and state mandates restricting the number of faculty, this situation is looming closer and closer for all institutions.

A major response to this need to reallocate faculty has been the development of models which infer the need for faculty based on their relative activity, or workload, in a department. This work has been hindered by the difficulty to establish an appropriate measure of faculty workload which produces a uniform index of faculty activity across disciplines and institutional types. The numerous efforts to develop an appropriate set of weights on the proper categories of activities leads to the conclusion that a discovery of the desired weights will require additional effort and will not occur in the near future.

This paper presents a way to access output among departments which have been historically different. Specifically the model computes a workload target for each department. Furthermore, this target is based on tne weighted combination of the overall average productivity at the institution, the average productivity of the college, the preceding productivity of the department, and the ideal productivity of the department. The weights can be different for each department; the departmental goal can be different. The model then iterates toward the departmental target with a proportion of the over-staffed faulty reallocated each iteration and the target recomputed for each department for each iteration. The productivity for each department is computed for each iteration based on the credits produced by the department and the preceding allocation of faculty.

This model simulates factors involved in the reallocation of faculty and leaves to the decision-maker the task of determining a unique workload goal for each department. It is easy to explain to others and can be used in an interactive mode.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND THE M. I. S. ENVIRONMENT

Allan M. Bloom Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Abstract

As Institutional Research matures in the role of providing information on institutional problems, it is drawn increasingly into the domain of Management Information Systems. Almost every IR office now has some level of responsibility for its institution's MIS. That level of involvement can range from formal control of MIS to the responsibility assumed by basing studies and reports on the MIS contents. At any level of involvement, success is predicated on a combination of the technical skills and personality traits of those holding MIS responsibility.

In selecting a person for key MIS responsibility, that person's characteristics may be of more importance than his or her experiences and abilities. Technical skills can be acquired more readily than personal characteristics. As is often the case in other fields, success in MIS may be keyed to the person charged with responsibility. A study of MIS failures found the common cause of systems failure, and of systems success, to be the MIS executive responsible for the project. Others have stressed the need for the MIS executive to change his or her role to meet the coming changes and challenges in information processing. Still others have stressed the necessity for a user and MIS architect to work together interactively or even for executive management to become involved in--not just supportive of--MIS development and operation to achieve success. All imply a need to combine managerial and technical skills at the executive level to ensure a successful MIS.

Soden (1975) used empirical evidence to postulate five types of MIS executives: 1. flamboyant conceptualizer; 2. benign underachiever; 3. tyrant; 4. efficiency expert; and 5. fast tracker. The proposed paper fits those five types into combinations of three "pure types" derived from the management functions of planning, controlling, and supervising.

This linkage of empirical observation and management theory is valuable in two respects: first, validation of Soden's observations by fitting them to a sound theoretical framework; second, use of the resulting model to extend observation by uncovering personality types that did not appear in Soden's study and projecting their success in an MIS environment. This paper employs that model to investigate the consequences of using specific styles in the various situations representing typical IR responsibilities for MIS.

References

Soden, J. V. "Understanding MIS Failures." *Data Management*, Vol. 13, No. 7, July 1975.

UNIVERSITY SPACE MANAGEMENT: MANAGERS AND MANAGEMENT INFORMATION

Linda B. Williamson
Philip B. Sheldon
Beatrice T. Mahan

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Abstract

The first part of this paper deals with the findings of a survey of twelve universities regarding their space managers and space management policies. Information presented in this section of the paper includes the following: 1. titles of central space offices; 2. a summary of space management functions; 3. a summary of university officials in charge of space management; and 4. a summary of the use of university facilities by frequency of space utilization studies, the extent of computerization of facilities inventories, and the process for allocation or reallocation of space.

The second part of the paper focuses on the data needed to support space management. These data generally have several sources including a room inventory, office assignment records, and class schedules. A number of key data elements and structural considerations for these data bases are identified, along with some of the problems of capturing, maintaining, and analyzing the appropriate data.

UTILIZATION OF THE 1980 CENSUS DATA FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH AND PLANNING: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

Jane Preston

Lincoln University

Abstract

On April 1, 1980, the decennial census was conducted. The collection of statistics resulting from the 1980 census will far surpass information previously available. Preliminary data reports were released in July 1980.

Among the new and more significant items incorporated in the 1980 census are the following: 1. federal legislative redistricting by population areas; 2. new program incorporating "neighborhood" statistics; 3. establishment of new standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSAs); 4. coverage of 45,000 census "tracts" in the 1980 census, compared to 35,000 in the 1970 census; 5. travel time to work; 6. place of residence and (employment) activity five years ago.

This paper will suggest some uses of the 1980 census data for university planners and institutional researchers and will provide a source document for obtaining census-related information and materials.

VISIBILITY AND VITALITY OF INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

Glynton Smith

Georgia State University

Abstract

Do students, faculty, administrators, the governing board, and other college personnel fully accept and support an office of institutional research? How does institutional research contribute to a college's total educational program? Moreover, what evidence is there for a systematic analysis of the purpose of institutional research as well as the planning, implementation, and evaluation procedures of this function?

These pertinent questions of visibility and vitality now appear in the manual of the Commission on Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS, 1974) which, like several other regional accrediting associations, has recognized institutional research.

This paper describes how an institutional research staff assertively incorporated the external demands of the accreditation self-study process to plan and implement a multiple-purpose program in anticipation of needs. Institutional researchers at Georgia State University developed a common core of information, which reduced the burden of preparing for one of the largest teams of accreditation evaluators ever brought to a single campus at one time.

The self-study process afforded a significant breakthrough for the institutional research staff at Georgia State University. Wide dissemination of institutional research program outcomes clearly established the identity and usefulness of the multiple-purpose program. By timely delivery of required common-core information, the institutional research program served its university. In this example, program effectiveness was increased and/or tested through external accrediting demands.

USING COMPUTER RESOURCES IN THE SMALLER INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH OFFICE

Linda K. Pratt — North Carolina Central University
Norman P. Uhl — North Carolina Central University
Sandy H. Davis — North Carolina Central University

Abstract

Institutional research offices on small and medium-sized campuses have many of the same needs for computer technology as offices on larger campuses. Often, in fact, the need may be even more acute since the staff may be considerably smaller. This paper will describe some ways smaller offices can make maximum use of computer technology even with a relatively small staff and minimal equipment.

Three specific areas will be discussed: first, the development of student and faculty data bases to be used in completing federal, state, and institutional reports; second, the development of computer support for institutional planning effort; and third, the use of computer resources in institutional research and evaluation projects.

The use of one computer package, the Statistical Analysis System (SAS), in the development and maintenance of data files and the advantages and disadvantages of using SAS as compared to individually designed programs will be discussed. Included will be copies of a SAS program to produce a report and an example of the resulting report, in addition to descriptions of the time and cost of developing the file, writing the program, and generating the report.

Two software systems to be described are useful in planning: the EDUCOM Financial Planning Model (EFPM) and MARK IV. Examples will be given for using each of these packages. Reports generated by the respective systems will be presented, along with a discussion of the way in which the reports were actually used by the planning office at North Carolina Central University.

Finally, the paper will discuss use of the computer to analyze data for research and evaluation. Emphasis will be on the integration of research data with regularly maintained data files. Examples of merging and subsetting routines from SAS, as well as programs for completing two or three analyses and sample output, will be included. The paper will emphasize the development of adequate computer support for institutional research, with a minimum investment in hardware and a small staff.

THE ROLE OF INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH IN HIGHER EDUCATION DESEGREGATION ISSUES

John Matlock
Gayla Thomas

Tennessee Valley Center
Tennessee State University

Abstract

During the past five years, one of the major issues in higher education has been statewide desegregation of public higher education in approximately twelve states, most located in the Southern region of the country. These states, as a result of the *Adams* decision, were required to submit for approval from HEW's Office of Civil Rights (now U.S. Department of Education) comprehensive statewide plans for dismantling racially segregated public higher education institutions. Many of these states now are facing judicial hearings because of their failure to submit plans acceptable to the Office of Civil Rights. These hearings could cause various states to lose federal funds currently allocated to them.

States affected by the *Adams* decision are required to submit detailed data on enrollment patterns, faculty distribution, attrition rates, etc. The purpose of this paper is to examine the role of institutional research, particularly at individual institutions, in collecting, maintaining, and--even more importantly--analyzing statewide and institutional data used in determining desegregation policies as well as monitoring the effectiveness of these policies. The study is based on an examination of six statewide desegregation plans developed by various states.

The study suggests the need for additional information, especially at the individual institutions, as well as detailed analysis of existing data. The authors have found that institutional research offices play a very minimal role in analyzing these data. The study shows how existing data can be analyzed by the institutional research office and identifies "local" data that should be maintained by individual institutions. A subsection of the paper analyzes the need for public, predominantly black colleges to analyze desegregation policies and the data necessary to support the analyses.

Desegregation issues will be discussed and debated for many years to come. Already numerous suits and countersuits are being filed by the government and state higher education systems. Furthermore, individual institutions are suing their governing boards as the result of desegregation policies. This study should help various institutional research offices define or re-define their roles in this process. The courts and the U.S. government tend to place considerable reliance on the quality of the data presented to them as well as on the analyses of the data.

TACKLING THE MOUNTING INFORMATION COLLECTION PROBLEM: PERSPECTIVE FROM A STATE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

Wanda K. Cheek University System of Georgia

Abstract

The increasing burden of information reporting in the thirty-three institutions comprising the University System of Georgia has been the subject of extensive study since the fall of 1979. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the process by which all major phases of on-going information collection and utilization were examined by a specially appointed ad hoc committee whose charge was to investigate the problems of unnecessary reporting, duplication of reporting, and inaccurate reporting in the University System.

The following topics are discussed: 1. assessment of the information problem (the process of identifying all known regular information reporting requests external to System institutions); 2. development of principles of information collection and utilization; 3. identification of a minimum set of data elements that should be maintained to answer regular external data requests (including use of a data element matrix); 4. development of data element dictionaries; 5. development of a central student information reporting system; 6. current status of work.

While the thrust of the paper is at the System level, individual institutions should be able to apply the concepts to their data collection needs. The paper should also provide insight for institutions relative to the information needs of the state systems to which they are often required to submit data.

HIGHER EDUCATION FINANCING IN THE FIFTY STATES: SIGNIFICANCE FOR THE 'ADAMS' STATES

Jeanne E. Budig — Lincoln University

Abstract

A model system for profiling state fiscal and enrollment trends is especially timely. At no time in recent history have educational institutions faced so ambiguous a future.

A recent joint project by NCHEMS and NIE has produced such a profile, "Higher Education Financing in the Fifty States," by Marilyn McCoy and D. Kent Halstead. Based on 1976 fiscal and enrollment data, this report provides the most comprehensive framework for analysis yet available. A financing diagram which interrelates the various enrollment, state financing, and educational system factors has been developed.

This presentation will describe the study, explain the model, and highlight aspects of the study with specific relevance for the states covered by the 1977 *Adams* decision.

IDENTIFICATION OF PROBLEM AREAS AND EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES THAT DISCRIMINATE AGAINST MINORITIES AND WOMEN

Peggy S. Yi — West Virginia University
Richard D. Howard — West Virginia University

Abstract

West Virginia University, like many other institutions, has to comply with federal affirmative action requirements. In particular, the University must identify key job titles in which protected individuals are under-represented, in relation to their availability in the work force, and those employment practices which discourage their employment or full utilization. To meet these objectives, West Virginia University used the mathematical method suggested in the *1979 Guidebook to Fair Employment Practices* to detect whether and where discrimination against minorities and women exists at the University.

This paper describes the methodology used to collect the needed data to monitor the University's affirmative action efforts in this area for the period March 1978-August 1979. Analysis of the data, using the SAS statistical package, is described as well as the method of presentation to the University's Affirmative Action Office. The paper concludes with a description of the use of the data by the Affirmative Action Officer in presentation to various federal offices.

WHAT ROLE (IF ANY) SHOULD THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT PLAY IN PROVIDING SUPPORT TO INSTITUTIONS WHOSE STRESS PROBLEMS THREATEN THEIR SURVIVAL?

Roberta D. Brown Arkansas College

Abstract

The decade of the eighties will pose special challenges to postsecondary education. Declining enrollments, inflationary cost spirals, and lack of public confidence in education forebode trouble for many institutions.

Public policy decisions may, in fact, be the determinant of the survival or demise of certain types of institutions. Should the rate of closure of institutions accelerate during this decade, as forecasts indicate, there will likely arise cries for direct federal intervention. If program cut-backs affect students from particular regions, economic backgrounds, or ethnic backgrounds unequally because of the uneven distribution of types of students among types of institutions, then federal interest in providing access and choice will be aroused.

Most analysts agree that now is not the time for new legislative initiatives. Under this assumption, the following are among the public policy alternatives: 1. manipulation of Student Financial Assistance formulae to favor certain segments of postsecondary education; 2. display of models of management practice and academic excellence; 3. provision of assessment tools and collection of data nationally on the financial health of institutions; 4. direct federal assistance such as that provided under Title III of the Higher Education Act; and 5. assistance in institutional management.

ACADEMIC PROGRAM REVIEWS: RECENT CASE EXPERIENCES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Glynton Smith — Georgia State University
Charles H. Bryson — Georgia State University

Abstract

Rising costs of educational programs and declining enrollments have contributed to an increased interest in academic program reviews in institutions of higher education. This paper presents some recent case experiences at state and institutional levels, with emphasis upon the criteria and processes used. The aim of the paper is to provide timely background information for institutional researchers in the southern region.

Public institutions of higher education often find it difficult to initiate change, especially when change includes the potential of program termination, relocation and/or retention of faculty, and termination of staff. The reluctance of institutions and coordination boards to address many of these issues has prompted legislative bodies in some states to pursue and request academic program reviews at the state level. Questions concerning rising educational costs and declining or stabilizing enrollments are stimuli for program reviews, and these questions are likely to be intensified in the 80's.

A major difference between state-level and institutional-level program reviews lies in the nature of the basic approach; state-level program reviews tend to be more quantitative, while institutional-level reviews are more qualitative. Trends have evolved in these directions, since qualitative reviews generally are undertaken by persons close enough to a given program to have an understanding and appreciation for its overall contribution to its environment; at the state level, the availability of abundant productivity and cost data causes the review to be almost entirely quantitative.

Regarding benefits accruing under either approach, actual financial savings have been difficult to identify. Even when programs have been discontinued or merged, the overall cost reductions often have been insignificant; programs discontinued or consumed by merger were usually very small and had limited resource allocations. Greater benefits have been realized in reduction of managerial/administrative efforts. In some cases, low-productivity programs have been singled out for increased support because of newly-realized values to the overall academic community identified in the program review process.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE PROGRAM PLANNING FOR A CHANGING STUDENT POPULATION

Edith H. Carter New River Community College

Abstract

The changing student population with its decline in traditional college-age youth and the influx of older, more diverse students presents a new challenge for community college program planning. The challenge will be not just to absorb these students into existing programs but to modify programs to respond to student needs.

Historically, even in community colleges, the education of adults has been relegated to second-class status, in part because the vocational needs of mature students have been rejected by many instructors and also because the value of certain courses, especially in the area of liberal arts, has not been properly appreciated by students returning to the academic environment on a part-time basis. With the enrollment dependent upon working adults and other non-traditional students, it will become increasingly important to examine and review our programs in order to insure top-quality experiences academically and, at the same time, to maintain the standards and integrity of our institutional programs.

The purpose of this study is to examine program planning for the following areas as it relates to the changing needs of students: 1. curriculum modification and development; 2. diverse instructional modes; 3. modified course scheduling and locations for teaching courses; 4. in-service training for faculty and staff; and 5. grading procedures.

MINUTES OF THE ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING OF THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

October 31, 1980 Louisville, Kentucky

The meeting was called to order by President Larson at 9:00 a.m. The minutes of the last meeting were approved as published.

General announcements followed: Vice-President Jones announced that the 1981 Forum will be in Charlotte, North Carolina and that it will be a combined meeting of the North Carolina Association for Institutional Research and the Virginia Association for Institutional Research. The meeting will be held at the usual time--the last Thursday and Friday in October. Bob Ussery invited the group to Charlotte. Bob Lewis announced that the membership committee for the National Association for Institutional Research is still interested in receiving nominations for the Distinguished Member Award and the Outstanding Service Award. Jerry McLaughlin reviewed opportunities for publication with the membership.

Committee reports followed: The treasurer's report was approved as submitted. The Audit Committee announced that it had performed the annual audit and had found everything to be in order. Past-President Norman Uhl announced the results of the election: Vice-President: E. Michael Staman, University of Missouri-Columbia; Secretary/Treasurer: Denise Strenglein, University of South Florida; Members at Large: Charles I. Brown, Fayetteville State University; Richard Howard, West Virginia University. Richard Howard reported on the progress being made for the SAIR/SIG meeting at the National Forum. The general topic of the combined meeting will be related to support for financial decisions.

Nominations from the floor for the next nomination committee were asked for by President Larson. Those nominated were: Bob Ussery, East Carolina University, Charles Bryson, Georgia State University; Bob Carey, Union College; Mac Holderfield, South Carolina State Board for Tech/Comp Education: Stephanie Brown, Coppin State College.

President Larson spoke briefly on the need for participation in SAIR by the membership. Vice-President Jones announced that a plaque was being prepared in recognition of the contributions to the association made by Past-Presidents, Larson, Uhl, and Holmes. Vice-President-elect Staman requested consultation by the membership on the timing and format of the annual conference. Comments for the good of the order followed. The meeting was adjourned at 9:40 a.m.

Respectfully submitted,
E. Michael Staman
Secretary/Treasurer

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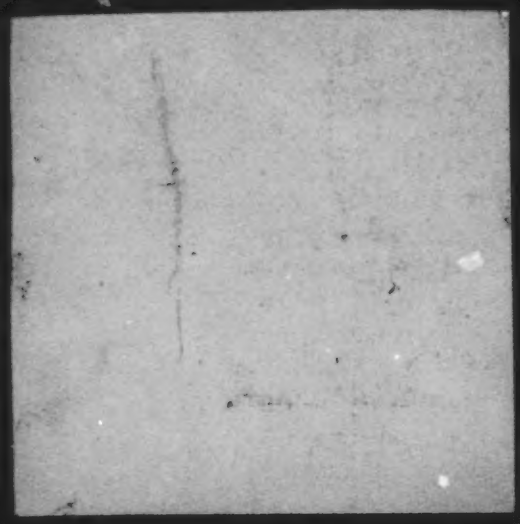

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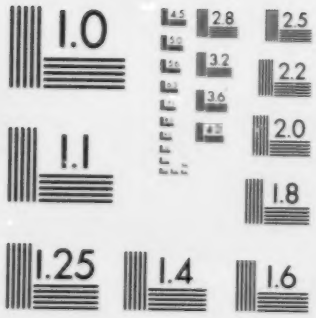

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(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS*
OF THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

Article I: Name

The name of the organization shall be the Southern Association for Institutional Research (SAIR).

Article II: Purposes

The major purposes of this Association shall be to provide: 1. for the dissemination of information and the interchange of ideas on problems of common interest; 2. for the continued professional development of individuals engaging in institutional research; 3. for the fostering of unity and cooperation among persons having interests and activities related to institutional research; 4. for the advancement of post-secondary education.

Article III: Membership and Voting

Section 1. Membership in the Association and election to any office or appointment to any committee shall not be based on race, ethnic origin, sex, age, or religious conviction.

Section 2. Membership shall be open to any person who is actively engaged in institutional research or has professional interest in activities related to institutional research.

Section 3. Membership shall include all individuals who pay a registration fee for the SAIR annual meeting and those who do not attend the annual meeting but pay a membership fee. Membership is valid until the start of the next SAIR annual meeting.

Section 4. Except for the election of officers, voting shall take place at the annual business meeting and be restricted to those members in attendance. For the election of officers, a ballot will be included in the announcement of the annual meeting sent to members of this association.

Article IV: Officers

Section 1. The officers of the Association shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, and a Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. *President*. The President shall: a) have general responsibility for promoting membership in the Association; b) appoint committee members;

*Reflects all changes adopted at the annual business meeting October 26, 1979.

c) serve as chairperson for the annual Conference; d) work with committees in formulating policy and expediting the implementation of such policies; e) consult with the Vice-President in planning the annual Conference; and f) perform any other duties necessary to assist the Association in achieving its purposes as stated in the Constitution.

Section 3. *Vice-President*. The Vice-President shall: a) plan the program for the next year's annual Conference; b) assist the President in other duties as the need arises; and c) assume the duties of the President in the event that person cannot complete his/her term.

Section 4. *Secretary-Treasurer*. The Secretary-Treasurer shall: a) maintain and publish an annual listing of the membership of the Association; b) keep the minutes of the annual business meeting and of the meetings of the Executive Committee; c) collect annual Conference registration and membership fees; d) provide for the payment of duly authorized expenses of the Association; e) prepare informal financial statements for the annual business meeting; f) print and distribute notices and proceedings of the annual Conference; and g) perform any other duties assigned by the President or Vice-President.

Section 5. *Term of Officers*. The Vice-President shall be elected for a two-year term and will be President for the second year. The term of office of the Secretary-Treasurer shall be three years. All newly elected officers shall assume office at the close of the annual Conference following the announcement of their election.

Section 6. *Vacancies*. Unless otherwise provided for the Constitution, the Executive Committee shall have the authority to fill a vacancy by appointing an Association member to fill unexpired terms. A person appointed to finish the term of Vice-President must run for election to become President. In this situation both the office of President and Vice-President will appear on the ballot. If the elected President resigns, the Vice-President completes the year as President and is also the President the following year. In all other situations the person appointed to an unexpired term shall be eligible to succeed him/herself and to serve a full elective term as provided in the Constitution.

Section 7. *Succession*. Officers cannot succeed themselves in the same office except as noted in Sections 5 and 6.

Section 8. *Election of Officers*. All officers shall be elected by a ballot distributed to the membership with the announcement of the annual meeting. The

ballot shall be returned to the Secretary-Treasurer for tabulation. The results will be announced at the annual business meeting.

Article V: Executive Committee

Section 1. The Executive Committee shall be composed of the President, Vice-President, Secretary-Treasurer, immediate Past-President, and two members-at-large. The current President shall chair the Committee.

Section 2. The Executive Committee shall: a) conduct the general affairs of the Association between its annual meetings; b) set the time and location of the next year's meeting; c) function as the Budget Committee; and d) fill vacancies, unless otherwise provided for in the Constitution.

Section 3. One Member-at-Large will be elected each year and will serve for a two-year term. He/she shall assist the Executive Committee in performing duties necessary to help the Association achieve its purposes as stated in the Constitution.

Article VI: Bylaws

The Association shall adopt bylaws consistent with this Constitution as required for the conduct of its affairs.

Section 1. Proposed changes in the bylaws: a) may be submitted in writing to any member of the Executive Committee at least sixty (60) days prior to the annual meeting, or; b) may be proposed through action originating in the Executive Committee.

Section 2. The Secretary-Treasurer shall be responsible for printing any proposed bylaws or amendment(s) initiated in accordance with Section 1 of this Article, and for submitting them to the registered members for consideration at the annual business meeting.

Section 3. A proposed change in the bylaws shall become effective at the end of the annual business meeting at which it was approved by a majority of the registered members present.

Article VII: Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at the annual business meeting.

Section 1. Proposed amendments to this Constitution: a) may be submitted to any member of the Executive Committee by a member of this Association

in writing at least sixty (60) days prior to the annual meeting, or b) may originate through actions in the Executive Committee.

Section 2. Proposed amendments must be approved by a two-thirds vote of the Executive Committee.

Section 3. Amendments approved by the Executive Committee shall be circulated at least thirty (30) days prior to the annual business meeting and at the annual business meeting by the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 4. Proposed changes to this Constitution conforming with Sections 1-3 of this Article shall become effective at the end of the annual business meeting at which they are approved by two-thirds of the registered members present.

BYLAWS

Conference

Section 1. The annual Conference of the Association shall be held during October of each year at a site and date determined by the Executive Committee and approved at the annual business meeting by the registrants in attendance. The Secretary-Treasurer shall be responsible for notifying all members of the date and location of the annual Conference at least sixty (60) days prior to the Conference. The annual business meeting shall be held in conjunction with the annual Conference. The Vice-President of the Association will be in charge of the program for this conference.

Calendar

Section 2. The fiscal year of the Association shall begin September 1.

Fees

Section 3. A. A registration fee will be assessed to all who register for the annual each year. Those who pay this fee will be members until the next SAIR Conference.

B. A membership fee shall be determined by the Executive Committee and will be assessed to all who do not pay the registration fee but wish to receive the benefit of the following SAIR services to include: Conference proceedings, membership list, advance notice of proposals for changes to the Constitution.

C. A discount in fees shall be established for full-time graduate students by the Executive Committee.

D. Fees shall be reviewed and set annually in July by the Executive Committee.

Committees

Section 4. A. A Nominating Committee composed of the immediate past President and at least two other members from a group of five proposed at the annual meeting by the voting members shall be appointed by the President no later than July 1 before each annual Conference.

B. An Audit Committee shall be appointed by the President for each annual business meeting. The Committee shall audit the Treasurer's books for the preceding fiscal year.

C. A Local Arrangements Committee shall be appointed by the Vice-President in consultation with the President of each annual Conference.

D. Such other committees as deemed necessary for the welfare of the Association may be appointed by the President.

Quorum

Section 5. A quorum to conduct the business of the Association shall consist of twenty-five (25) of the registrants of the annual Conference.

1980-1981 SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH MEMBERSHIP

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